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THE STORY OF
INDIANA
AND ITS PEOPLE

BY

ROBERT JUDSON ALEY, PH.D.

AND

MAX ALEY, A.B.

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PREFACE

THIS book has not been prepared with a view of adding new knowledge, or to settle disputed points. Its purpose is to furnish the young people of Indiana with an accurate story of the settlement and growth of the state.

Every one should have a just pride in his own state. He needs it in order that he may be the right sort of a citizen. State pride is the necessary background for national pride and patriotism. No pride is lasting unless it is based upon understanding. It is hoped that this Story of Indiana will furnish the knowledge to Hoosier boys and girls that will make them justly proud of their great state, and inspire them to noble and patriotic efforts in her behalf.

Sept., 1912. R. J. ALEY and MAX ALEY.

4031

INDIANA

Though many laud Italia's clime,
And call Helvetia's land sublime,
Tell Gallia's praise in prose and rhyme,
And worship old Hispania;
The winds of Heaven never fanned,
The circling sunlight never spanned,
The borders of a better land
Than our own Indiana.

INDIANA BOUNDARIES

The first session of the Fourteenth Congress passed the following Act relating to the boundaries of the state:

"The said state shall consist of all the territory included within the following boundaries, to-wit: Bounded on the east by the meridian line which forms the western boundary of the State of Ohio; on the south by the river Ohio from the mouth of the Great Miami River to the mouth of the river Wabash; on the west by a line drawn along the middle of the Wabash from its mouth to a point where a due north line drawn from the town of Vincennes would last touch the northwestern shore of the said river; and from thence by a due north line, until the same shall intersect an east and west line drawn through a point 10 miles north of the southern extreme of Lake Michigan; on the north by the said east and west line until the same shall intersect the first-mentioned meridian line which forms the western boundary of the State of Ohio."

By a previous act the western boundary of Ohio had been fixed at the meridian line drawn through the mouth of the Great Miami River.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
I	The Indians	15
II	French Explorers and Missionaries	28
III	Early Settlements. The French and English in Indiana	37
IV	The Conquest of the Northwest Territory	44
V	Frontier History	55
VI	The Northwest Territory and the Ordinance of 1787	64
VII	Indian Wars and Treaties	74
VIII	Indiana Territory	83
IX	The Battle of Tippecanoe. The War of 1812	95
X	Slavery in Indiana	106
XI	Indiana Becomes a State	116
XII	Pioneer Life	128
XIII	Early Schools	148
XIV	The State Capital Moved to Indianapolis	160
XV	The National Road	173
XVI	Era of Internal Improvements and the Mexican War	181
XVII	The Constitutional Convention of 1850. Government of Indiana	188
XVIII	Indiana Schools	196
XIX	Indiana During the Civil War. Part I	225
XX	Indiana During the Civil War. Part II	236
XXI	Indiana During the Civil War. Part III	253

Chapter		Page
XXII	Material Growth	262
XXIII	Indiana Politically	269
XXIV	The Hoosier in Literature	277
Appendix:		
I	List of Governors	285
II	List of U. S. Senators	286
III	Indiana Counties	287
IV	Constitution of Indiana	289
Index		315

MAPS AND ILLUSTRATIONS

MAPS

	Page
Portages Between the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River	42
Land Claims of the Thirteen Original States	65
Plan Proposed by Jefferson	68
Division of the Northwest Territory by Ordinance of 1787	72
Sources of Settlers in the Northwest Territory	81
Indiana in 1817	151
Map of Morgan's Raid	249
County Map of Indiana	279

ILLUSTRATIONS

Tecumseh's Trail Near Lafayette	*Frontispiece*
Found in Indian Mounds	19
Home Life of the Indian	23
Taking Possession for France	30
Monument on Site of Fort Ouiatanon	38
George Rogers Clark	45
British Recapture Vincennes	49
Clark's March to Vincennes	51
William Henry Harrison	84
First Capitol of Indiana, Vincennes	87
Harrison Mansion, Vincennes	91
Tippecanoe Monument	97
Pigeon Roost Monument	101
A Blockhouse	104
Jonathan Jennings	112
Old State Capitol, Corydon	117
Thomas Posey	118
Old Constitutional Elm	121

PAGE

OLD CAPITOL HOTEL, CORYDON 125
BUILDING A LOG CABIN 128
AN OLD TIME FIREPLACE 131
COMING TO INDIANA 132
TRAVELING BY WAGON 133
A HALF-FACED CAMP 135
A HOMEMADE BED 137
AN EARLY GRAIN MILL 139
A PIONEER HUNTER 141
SPINNING WHEEL AND REEL 143
FANNING AWAY THE CHAFF 145
WHERE LINCOLN ATTENDED SCHOOL 149
CALEB MILLS 156
SOLDIERS' AND SAILORS' MONUMENT, INDIANAPOLIS .. 165
STATE CAPITOL BUILDING, ERECTED 1832 168
TYPE OF SCHOOLS THAT IS DISAPPEARING 197
AN INDIANA TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL 199
TYPE OF SCHOOL THAT IS APPEARING 201
LIBRARY, STATE UNIVERSITY 203
AUDITORIUM, PURDUE UNIVERSITY 207
STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TERRE HAUTE 211
A MODERN INDIANA HIGH SCHOOL 215
STUDYING SOIL FORMATION IN A CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL 219
CHAPEL, BOYS' SCHOOL, PLAINFIELD 223
STATUE OF MORTON, INDIANAPOLIS 227
LINCOLN TABLET ON CLAYPOOL HOTEL, INDIANAPOLIS 231
BUILDING USED AS PRISON BY MORGAN, CORYDON .. 243
OLD CHURCH USED AS HOSPITAL BY MORGAN, CORYDON 247
PRESENT STATE CAPITOL 263
AN INDIANA STONE QUARRY 267
THOMAS A. HENDRICKS MONUMENT, INDIANAPOLIS .. 271
SCHUYLER COLFAX MONUMENT, INDIANAPOLIS 275

THE STORY OF INDIANA

CHAPTER I

THE INDIANS

Origin of the Name "Indian." When Columbus discovered America he believed he had reached the East Indies, and so he called the natives of the New World Indians. These natives were spread over the entire continent, and were quite numerous at the time of the first explorations. They were not a civilized people and had not advanced far enough to keep a written record of their own history, so we do not know whence they came nor how long they had been living in North America. Later, when exploring parties passed into the interior of the new continent, they found great earth-works, or mounds, which they concluded were the work of a previous race of people, whom, because of what they had left behind them, the white men named Mound-builders.

The Mound-builders. These Mound-builders were the first inhabitants of the territory now forming the state of Indiana. It is commonly believed that the Mound-builders were a great and civilized people who disappeared from the country long before the coming of the white man. Those who first studied the mounds wrote a great deal about the Mound-builders that had no actual basis in fact, and so we find many books dealing with the subject in a most fanciful and imaginative manner. As a result of

careful study, it is now believed that the Mound-builders were not such an ancient nor such a civilized race as formerly supposed, and that they were the direct ancestors of the Indians found here by the white men.

Accounts of Early Explorers. In the accounts of the early Spanish explorers, we read of Indians in the South who were living in towns surrounded by earthen walls, and having the houses of the chief men built on high, artificial mounds. This would indicate that these Indians were either Mound-builders, or that they utilized mounds already in existence.

Use of Mounds by Indians. From the time of these early Spaniards down to the beginning of the nineteenth century, reference after reference is made by different writers to mound-building. It is certain that the Indians often built burial mounds, and sometimes buried their dead in graves dug in the sides of the old mounds. Furthermore, they had a superstitious awe of these mounds, and greatly resented their desecration by the whites when they were first opened for the purpose of investigation. A number of instances are on record where Indians pointed out mounds which they claimed to have built. In 1778, George Rogers Clark was informed by the chief of the Kaskaskias that his tribe had built the Cahokia mounds (in Illinois), some generations back.

The Mounds. The mounds themselves, by their size and numbers, show that great labor was expended upon them. The Cahokia mound in Illinois is seven hundred feet long, five hundred feet wide, and ninety feet high. The building of such a mound with modern machinery would be no easy task. What then must have been the time and labor required by the Mound-builders who worked with the rudest sort of tools! Remains of fortifications are found in several places in Indiana. A noted

one of these is a few miles above Jeffersonville. It occupies a well selected position between the Ohio River and Fourteen Mile Creek. The space enclosed by artificial and natural stone walls is an oblong containing more than seventeen acres. Another interesting fortification is found near Merom, in Sullivan County, and is known as Fort Azatlan. It is of irregular shape, and about twelve hundred feet long. Several mounds are found in Knox County, near Vincennes.

Life of the Mound-building Indians. The Mound-builders, or the Indians at the time they were engaged in mound-building—whichever the case may be—lived a more settled life than did the red men whom the early whites found in the Mississippi and Ohio valleys. Their villages were permanent, and they engaged in agriculture to an extent unknown among the Indians of later date. They were expert in the making of pottery, and also practiced the art of weaving. Their life was settled and not nomadic, as was that of the Indians in the Ohio valley at the time of its settlement by the whites.

Coming of Herds of Buffalo. Those who believe that the Indians built the mounds, explain that they ceased doing so when the great herds of buffalo came and made quiet village life impossible. Their coming turned the attention of the Indians from agriculture to hunting. We know that the great herds did come, and we know that they must have caused much destruction in the Indian fields of corn, but whether this is an adequate explanation, the reader must decide for himself.

The Indians. The region now included within the state of Indiana was, at the time of its discovery by Europeans, in the possession of the Miami confederacy of Indians. In this confederacy were the Weas, Piankashaws, Peorias, Twightwees, and Kaskaskias. They were

divided into tribes according to kinship, and were governed by a chief, or a number of chiefs, for each tribe. Those in Indiana lived along the Wabash River and its tributaries, in small, temporary villages. The confederacy, however, covered the states of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and part of Ohio. If the Miamis followed a previous race, we have no means of knowing at what time nor from whence they came. Little Turtle, greatest of the Miami chiefs, said that his fathers had occupied the country from "time immemorial."

Manner of Life. These Indians lived in rude huts made of logs, or in wigwams covered with skins, bark, or a kind of matting which the women wove out of flags. During the fall, winter, and part of the spring, the Indians were scattered in the woods hunting. In the spring they gathered at the village sites, near which they had fields where they planted corn, beans, squash, pumpkins, melons, and tobacco. They stored up but little of the food raised in the summer, and through the winter lived chiefly on what the hunters killed.

Weapons. Before the coming of the whites, the Indians hunted with weapons of their own make. Every warrior had a spear and bow and arrows, the latter pointed with heads of flint. He also had a stone hatchet, or tomahawk, and a war club which was made by enclosing a large stone in rawhide and fastening this to a handle. The Indians possessed great skill in making all of these weapons, as may be seen at the present time by looking over a collection of Indian relics. The barbed points for arrow and spear heads were chipped out from pieces of flint by using another sharpened stone to do the work. They are beautifully shaped and are often very sharp. The tomahawks were large hatchet-shaped stones with a depression about the center to hold the thongs which

FOUND IN INDIAN MOUNDS

fastened the stone to the handle. Sometimes the stones were put into a split sapling and allowed to grow fast. This method fastened the tomahawk very securely to the handle.

Mode of Travel. The Indians travelled by water whenever they could. The canoes which they made were of logs burned out and smoothed, or of birch bark sewed together with strong fibers from tree roots. The Indians knew the water-ways perfectly, though they had no maps, and by short portages could go almost anywhere by water. Of course, at that time the rivers and creeks had more water in them than they have now, for the forests which held the moisture had not been cut away. The water-ways were the highways, and over them at all seasons of the year passed the swift, light canoes.

Dress. The dress of the Indians was made of skins embroidered with beads and shells, and variously ornamented with the teeth and claws of animals and the feathers of birds. The women were usually fully clothed, but the men wore little clothing, tattooing and painting the exposed parts of their bodies.

Family Life and Rearing of Children. Among themselves, in the tribe and family, the Indians were a simple race, and seem to have been affectionate and kindly disposed. Sentiment, however, had little place among them. The children, particularly, were treated in a manner something like that of the old Spartans. The infant child, or papoose, was bound to a board to make him grow straight, and was not allowed to cry or make a disturbance. The whole rearing of the Indian was calculated to fit him to endure the greatest hardships. He bathed in cold water, and frequently fasted an entire day. He made long journeys on foot, ran long distances, and lived his life in the open. His body was scantily clothed even in

winter, while in summer he usually wore no clothing at all. When a boy was about eighteen, he was taken to a solitary place where he fasted from five to eight days, after which a feast was given by his father to celebrate the son's entrance into manhood.

Marriage Customs. After having thus formally become a man, the Indian boy married. Usually the marriage was arranged between the father of the boy and the father of the girl. The boy's father held a family council, and if his choice of a wife for his son was agreeable to all the relatives, presents were taken to the girl's father, the proposal made, and the relatives of the girl given time to consult and decide about the match. If the latter agreed, they collected presents, dressed the girl in her best clothes, and took her to the wigwam of the young man's father, where she and her dowry were left. This was considered sufficient, and no further marriage ceremony was necessary. If, however, the relatives of the girl, or she herself, did not approve the match, the presents given by the young man's relatives were returned, and accepted by them in token of refusal.

Indian Housekeeping. After the wedding, the young couple set up housekeeping in a new wigwam, usually presented by the young man's father. Housekeeping, however, was very simple. The wigwam contained no furniture, only skins spread on the ground, and a hole in the center of the room where the fire was kept burning. No washing had to be done, for the clothing was of buckskin, and a garment was worn until it became ragged, when the squaw made a new one. The cooking was simple. The squaw pounded corn in a stone mortar until it was made into meal. This was baked in flat cakes, and served as bread. Meat was boiled with corn, or beans. Deer, bear, and buffalo meat were the kinds

most frequently used by the Indians, but on special occasions they roasted a dog whole, and considered its meat a great delicacy. The Indian brave provided all the game and did the fighting, while the squaw looked after

HOME LIFE OF THE INDIAN

the wigwam and the children, raised the corn, beans and other vegetables, dressed the skins of animals and prepared their meat for food.

Indian Traits. Like all early and savage tribes, the Indians were bloodthirsty and cruel in war, burning their captives at the stake after prolonged torture, and sometimes keeping out a few choice victims for a cannibal feast. But to their friends the Indians were generous and kind. Many of the early settlers who were honest and fair in their dealings with the red men were befriended by them in time of need, saved from mas-

sacre by strange and hostile Indians, or helped through the first winter with gifts of food.

Indian Religious Beliefs. Indian religion was very much like that of all savage peoples. The red men believed in a Great Spirit, but also in a host of lesser spirits—one for everything in nature. All evil things were the result of an evil spirit. Disease was caused by the presence of an evil spirit in the person afflicted, and to cure the disease the medicine man made all sorts of noises to frighten the evil spirit away. Instead of rest and quiet, the sick Indian found himself tortured by noise, the medicine man dancing about him disguised in a hideous mask, shaking rattles, screeching, and howling. All these spirits, both good and bad, had to be propitiated. The best way to do this was by feasts and dances. Hence these apparent pleasures were to the Indian sacred religious rites.

Dances. The dances were held in the council house, which was the most important structure in each village. An early missionary who came to Indiana in 1801, says, in describing some Indian towns on the Wabash: "In each of these towns there was a council house, about forty feet in length and twenty feet in breadth, where they usually celebrated their sacrificial feasts and dances. These houses were built of split wood piled up betwixt posts set in the ground, covered with a roof made of laths and the bark of trees, and having an entrance at either end; but there was neither floor nor ceiling; three fireplaces stood in a straight line from end to end, with large kettles suspended over them in which a mess of Indian corn and meat, boiled together, was prepared for the guests to eat after the dance was over. Platforms one foot high and five feet wide were raised all along the sides of the house, and were covered first with bark and

then long grass on top of that, to serve as couches for the guests to sit or recline upon while smoking their pipes and witnessing the dancing of the others. These dances were invariably got up in the night, and sometimes continued for weeks together. The whole was concluded by a sacrificial feast, for which the men had to furnish the venison and bear's meat, and the women the corn bread; and everything had to be prepared in the council house before all feasted together amid the observance of certain rites."

Games. The Indians had as great a fondness for games as have the children of our own race. They played many different ones, but football seems to have been the favorite, for the whole village could take part according to the Indian manner of playing the game. It was quite common for the squaws to play the braves. In this case rules were made giving the women certain advantages; for instance, the men could use only their feet, while the women could use both hands and feet in the effort to get the ball through the goal posts. The two contending parties arranged themselves in the center of the field, the men on one side, the women on the other, each party facing the goal of their opponents. The ball was usually brought on the field by the chief, who threw it up between the two opposing teams. The side which succeeded in driving the ball through the stakes at the goal of their adversaries was proclaimed victor, and received whatever prize had been determined upon before the game began. We are told that it was no uncommon thing for the squaws to come off victorious.

The Game of Straws. This seems to have been a favorite game. Father Charlevoix in one of his narratives says: "This day the Pottawatomies were come to play the game of straws with the Miamis. The game

405/

was played in the chief's cabin and on the open ground before it. The straws used are little twigs of the bigness of a wheat stalk, and no more than two inches long. They take a bunch of these, generally containing a hundred and one straws, but always an odd number. After giving them a good mixing up, with many contortions of their bodies and many invocations of their favorite genii, the whole are divided into packets of ten, with a sort of awl or pointed bone. Every one takes his packet at hazard, and the one who gets the eleven straws gains a certain number of points. Sixty or eighty play the game at a time."

Burial Customs. When an Indian died he believed that his spirit would go to the "Happy Hunting Ground"—a place of eternal happiness, similar to, but much better than this world. If the dead man had been an evil doer, he went to a place of torment and punishment. The body was preserved with great care, for the Indians believed that this must be done to insure the happiness of the spirit of the dead. Near every Indian village was a cemetery. These cemeteries were of various kinds according to the customs of the particular tribe or village. Some laid the dead body on top of the earth and made a crib or pen over it with logs, which were then covered with bark; others dug graves as the white people do, and covered the body with bark before covering it with earth; some made coffins of strong boards, placing the corpse in this and hanging it up in the top of a tree. Much of the property of the dead man was buried with him. Food and tobacco were kept on his grave to supply him with nourishment on his way to the "Happy Hunting Ground." At the funeral all the nearest relations blacked their faces, and fasted for a certain time afterwards, the length of which was determined by the

head of the family. The funeral procession was elaborate. First came the body, then the relatives and closest friends, and after them the whole village, the women singing a wailing chant which was a lamentation for the dead.

Number of Indians. The number of Indians within the boundaries of Indiana at the time of its discovery by Europeans is not known. They were not very numerous, perhaps a few thousand at best. This number steadily grew less with the constant warfare, the destroying effects of new diseases which were contracted from the whites, and the physical and moral degeneration which the white man's "fire water" produced upon the Indians.

CHAPTER II

FRENCH EXPLORERS AND MISSIONARIES

England, France, and Spain. Three great nations contended for the possession of the New World after its discovery by Columbus. These were the English, the French, and the Spanish. Spain was the first to colonize. The scene of her activities was in the South—in Florida, Louisiana, Mexico and Central America. England planted her first permanent colony at Jamestown, Virginia. France went farther north and made settlements along the St. Lawrence River. The object of each nation was to gain a foothold in the new land. The colonists themselves expected to find gold and silver, and to gain wealth by the exchange of cheap articles of European manufacture for the valuable furs and other commodities which the Indians had to offer.

French Traders. The French, along the St. Lawrence, followed the Great Lakes and the rivers of the Northwest, finally working their way down into the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. There were two routes through Indiana used very frequently by the early traders. One route was up the Maumee River from Lake Erie to a point near the present site of Fort Wayne, and then by an easy portage they reached the Wabash and went down that to the Ohio, and then on to the Mississippi. The other route was up the St. Joseph from Lake Michigan to near the present site of South Bend, and then by a short portage to the Kankakee, which by way of the Illinois reached the Mississippi. Along these portages many knives, beads

and trinkets of seventeenth-century French make have been found. At first they did not establish trading posts in this region, but came through in canoes, bartering trinkets, blankets, and "fire water" for furs. We do not know at what date these wandering traders first came down the Wabash and other Indiana streams. It was sometime in the latter half of the seventeenth century, probably about 1660.

La Salle's First Expedition. Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle, the famous French explorer, is the first white man of whose visit to Indiana we have record. His object was to reach the Mississippi River, which he believed emptied into the Pacific Ocean, thus giving a short and easy route to China and Japan. He went down the Ohio in 1669–70, probably passing along the entire southern boundary of the state. With La Salle was a party of twenty or thirty men, hardy woodsmen and traders in whose faithfulness he thought he could rely. Unfortunately his trust was misplaced. Becoming weary of the hardships of the journey, the entire party deserted their leader in the night, making their way to the settlements in New Holland and New England. The brave La Salle, alone, and without food other than that he begged from friendly Indians or shot in the forest, retraced his steps and finally reached the French settlements in Canada.

Second Expedition. Undaunted by the hardships and misfortunes of his first expedition, La Salle made a second attempt in 1671. He followed the Great Lakes to the southern extremity of Lake Michigan and crossed the northwest corner of the state, passing down the Kankakee and Des Plaines Rivers. He was again unsuccessful in reaching the Mississippi.

From the time of these early expeditions of La Salle to his expedition of 1679, there are no recorded explora-

tions of Indiana, yet it is very certain that fur traders were meanwhile going down its streams in their canoes, and missionary fathers were raising the cross and celebrating mass in the wilderness.

TAKING POSSESSION FOR FRANCE

Mission Fathers. It was probably about 1670 that the first mission fathers came into Indiana. To venture into this region meant hardship and danger; but to them hardship was nothing, danger was nothing; to rear the

cross and carry the Christian faith to the Indians was their end, and many willingly sacrificed their lives in gaining it. What the hardships of these early missionaries were we can gather in some measure from their writings, though few of these records have come down to us; the greater part of what they endured we have to guess from a knowledge of the conditions of the time. The country was a trackless wilderness, and the only mode of travel was by canoe, or on foot. No explorations had been made; there were no maps; so the word of the Indian must be taken as the only guide. Too many times the Indian proved false. But the priests met hardship and even death with a brave smile and a courage truly heroic.

The Indians and Christianity. The efforts of the missionaries in Christianizing the Indians were at first very poorly repaid. The Indians listened courteously to an explanation of the Christian faith, and then expected the white men to listen with equal forbearance to an explanation of their own savage beliefs. Naturally the priests failed in an appreciation of the Indian religion, which offended the Indians and made the missionary efforts doubly hard. One early writer tells us that Indian etiquette regarded a discussion of the future life as very bad form, and indulged in only by "fools and white men." Despite the difficulties, the early mission fathers achieved remarkable results. The form and ceremony of the church appealed to the savages, and great numbers of them were converted, outwardly, at least. Wherever an early trading post was found, there too was a mission, and there the solemnities of the mass were celebrated in rude but genuine manner.

Marquette. Jacques Marquette was one of the earliest of these devoted and heroic priests. He was also one of the most successful, for he learned six of the difficult

Indian dialects and sought to present the Christian religion to the Indians in such manner that they could easily grasp it.

Joliet. From the Indians Marquette heard of the Mississippi, and was fired with the desire to see that mighty stream and preach the Christian faith to the savages along its banks. Fortune favored the worthy priest, for an explorer, Louis Joliet by name, was soon to set out for the Mississippi, and, as was the custom of the French, wished to find a priest to accompany his party. Joliet was a woodsman, rough and resourceful, who understood the difficulties of travel through forest and by stream and knew how to conquer them.

The Explorers Set Out. Marquette was glad to make one of the little party, and so, on May 17, 1673, he and Joliet, together with five companions, set out from St. Ignace in two canoes. They paddled south and west along the shore of Lake Michigan and entered Green Bay. Lake Winnebago was reached through the Fox River, and on its shores the party found a village of the Mascoutin Indians. These Indians had been visited previously by a French missionary, and Marquette's heart was gladdened by the sight of the cross raised in a prominent place in their village. These Indians were friendly and well-disposed and furnished Joliet's party with guides to lead them to the Wisconsin River.

On the Wisconsin River. They reached the Wisconsin and embarked upon it, though they were ignorant of where it would take them. But Joliet was an explorer with the true spirit of his kind. He dared the unknown and blazed the way for those who were to come later. As for the priest, he seems never to have suffered fear of danger or hardship. Though weak in body, he was a giant in spiritual strength.

Life of the Explorers. The life of the exploring party was a rough, hard one, but doubtless it had its pleasures too. All day they floated in their canoes, and when night came drew into shore and made camp. For food they had buffalo meat, or venison, and corn prepared in some of the numerous Indian ways. They slept beneath the stars, a blazing fire in their midst to frighten away the wild animals and warm the sleepers against the chill of the night mist. By daylight the party were up, and by the time the sun had melted the mist away, were floating down stream again.

On the Mississippi. On June 17 they reached the mouth of the Wisconsin and floated into the channel of the Mississippi, "Father of Waters." On either side of the river rose beautiful wooded hills. Buffalo, deer, wild fowl and other game were plentiful, and the river abounded in fish. It was literally an uninhabited paradise, for no Indian villages were to be found in this region, and very few of the red men even hunted there. The canoes drifted a great distance down the river without the explorers discovering any signs of inhabitants along the shores. They had been warned that the Indians would be hostile, so were constantly on guard, anchoring the canoes out in the stream so as to be ready for instant flight, and keeping a sentinel always on guard.

Illinois Indians. Finally they came in sight of an Indian village, and Marquette and Joliet decided to visit it, leaving the remainder of the party to guard the canoes and supplies. The two Frenchmen were kindly received. The Indians proved to be of the Illinois tribe and spoke a language Marquette was able to understand, and, in some degree, to speak himself. He addressed the men of the village and was in turn tendered a speech full of high-flown compliments from the chief of the tribe. A feast of

corn mush, fish, dog meat, and buffalo meat followed. The two Frenchmen managed all but the dog meat very creditably, but that they could not eat, a circumstance which the Indians failed to understand, for to them it was the greatest delicacy.

Painted Rocks. The party, continued their way down stream meeting with various experiences. After they had passed the mouth of the Illinois River they reached the "monsters" that the Indians further north had told them were to be found along the river. These "monsters" were nothing more dangerous than painted rocks. Marquette says in describing them: "Upon the flat face of a high rock were painted in red, black and green, two monsters, each as large as a calf, with horns like a deer, red eyes, and a beard like a tiger's, and a frightful expression of countenance. The face is something like that of a man, the body covered with scales; and the tail so long that it passes entirely around the body, over the head and between the legs, ending like that of a fish."

Arkansas Indians. Marquette and Joliet finally reached a village of the Arkansas nation where they were kindly received, but urged not to go farther, as the Indians to the south were very hostile. Fear of the Spaniards, too, had some influence in keeping them back, for the Spanish Indian traders and explorers of the period were more to be feared than hostile Indians. Spain at this time claimed the land along the Gulf, and engaged in trade with many of the tribes of southern Indiana.

The Explorers Turn Back. The party was convinced of one thing: that the Mississippi emptied into the Gulf of Mexico, not into the Pacific Ocean, nor the Gulf of California, as had been formerly supposed. Having reached this conclusion, they determined to turn back, for they knew not what perils lay to the south among the hostile

tribes of Indians. They were still seven hundred miles from the mouth of the river, though they thought themselves much nearer.

The Return Journey. The journey up the Mississippi was long and laborious. The canoes no longer drifted with the current. Now every mile had to be gained at the expense of hard and continuous paddling. To add to their discomforts, it was mid-summer and very hot. The shore on either side was swampy and unhealthy. Marquette, unable to stand the hardship, became ill. But the party had to toil on just the same, struggling slowly northward, mile by mile.

End of the Journey. They reached the mouth of the Illinois at last, and from there proceeded northward to Lake Michigan, by way of the Chicago and Des Plaines Rivers. They reached the mission of Green Bay in September.

Death of Father Marquette. Father Marquette lived but a year longer. He made one more missionary journey among the Indians and won many of them to his faith. On the return journey to Lake Michigan, the strength of the good man failed him and he died before the Green Bay mission could be reached. He was buried in the wilderness, but later his bones were removed by the Indians he had Christianized, and brought to St. Ignace, where they were buried beneath the floor of the little chapel.

La Salle's Last Exploration. Meanwhile La Salle continued to explore the country, holding fast to his great purpose despite many misfortunes. In the year 1680 he reached the point where Peoria, Illinois, now stands. He built a fort at this point, naming it Creve Cœur, which in English means "Broken Heart." Two years later he reached the Mississippi River, and travelling down that

great stream, finally gained the mouth. On April 9, 1682, he took possession of the country in the name of Louis XIV, King of France. On a later expedition in 1687, La Salle was treacherously murdered by his followers. He was a great explorer, and a brave and noble man. He blazed the trail for the settlers to follow, and did much to make possible the opening up and development of the Northwest and the Mississippi valley in the century following.

CHAPTER III

EARLY SETTLEMENTS. THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH IN INDIANA

Dates of Early Settlements Difficult to Determine. The date of the founding of the earliest settlement in Indiana is much disputed and cannot be definitely determined. In the early days no records were kept, so that we have no evidence of that sort to help us. We have to accept the word of early writers and historians and such evidence as is found in the letters of explorers and travelers.

The Wabash Route. After La Salle's exploration the French planned a chain of forts, which they hoped to extend along the entire route from Quebec to Louisiana. This route followed the St. Lawrence River, Lake Ontario, the Niagara River, Lake Erie, the Maumee River, the portage from the Maumee to the Wabash River, the Wabash River to the Ohio and the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico.

French Forts. Three of the forts were built in Indiana, but of the dates of these we are not certain. On the Wabash River, four miles southwest of the present city of LaFayette, Fort Ouiatanon was erected. Post du Ouabache was farther down the river and stood where the city of Vincennes is now located. The name was changed to Post Vincennes about 1760, in honor of the first commandant, Francis Morgan de Vincennes. The other post, Fort Miamis, stood on the site of the present city of Fort Wayne.

Vincennes. Post du Ouabache, or Vincennes, was established as a fort probably in 1727. It has been claimed that it had existed as a trading post since 1702, but this claim is not very well founded. Seventeen hundred and two is the date now claimed by the city, nevertheless, and a tablet bearing that date adorns the Knox County courthouse. Though many bits of evidence point to the

MONUMENT ON SITE OF FORT OUIATANON

establishment of the fort in 1727, recent investigations by the Indiana Historical Society give reason to believe that the date was four years later—1731. The settlement was well established four years after that date, for we know that by 1735 several French families had settled at the post and it had become the first permanent European village within the borders of Indiana.

Ouiatanon. Fort Ouiatanon was established about 1720. In the year 1719 the Commandant at Detroit, M. de Vaudreuil, commissioned a young officer named Dubuisson to take command of Fort Ouiatanon. The impression gained from the commission is that the fort was not then established, and that Dubuisson was to establish and take charge of it. It is possible that a trading post had existed here for some time, and that the establishment of the fort was brought about through the demand of the traders for protection of their interests. However that may be, it seems pretty certain that Dubuisson established the military post in the summer of the year following the receipt of the commission. That places the date of the establishment as 1720, and makes the post probably the oldest in the state. It was not a permanent settlement, however, as was Vincennes. It consisted of a stockade surrounding a few cabins, all traces of which have long since disappeared.

Fort Miamis. The date of Fort Miamis is not known, though some historians have placed it between the years 1713 and 1718, and claim that it was the first fort within the borders of Indiana. The fact that it is near Detroit might give some reason to believe that it was established before the other forts. But there is no evidence to give us any definite date for its establishment, and we must be satisfied to say that it was established sometime near the date of the fort at Ouiatanon. It should not be confused with Fort Miami built by La Salle at the mouth of the St. Joseph River, on Lake Michigan.

Government of Forts. Post Vincennes, from the date of its establishment to the close of the French occupation, was included in the District of Illinois, of the Province of Louisiana. The two other forts, Post Ouiatanon

and Fort Miamis, were part of Canada, and under the Commandant at Detroit.

Death of Vincennes. St. Ange Takes Command. In the year 1736 Vincennes, first commandant of the post that later came to bear his name, lost his life in a fight with a party of Indians at the mouth of the Ohio. We are told that he died bravely, and "ceased not until his last breath to exhort his men to behave worthy of their religion." Vincennes was succeeded at the post by Louis St. Ange, whose command lasted through the remainder of the French rule. Under him the little village had nearly thirty years of peace and prosperity.

The British. Meanwhile England was casting envious eyes at the rich country in the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. Its fur trade was then the best on the whole continent, and its fertile lands offered opportunity for colonization. With true British pluck and daring, England began to treat with the Indians, and invade French territory with trade and settlement. The English claimed a large section of the country as belonging to the early colonies of Virginia and Massachusetts, and in spite of French occupation, they proceeded to exercise some of the rights of possession. A company called the Ohio Company was organized under royal charter from King George II, who granted it a half million acres of land lying on or near the Ohio River, and gave to its representatives the exclusive privilege of trading with the Indians.

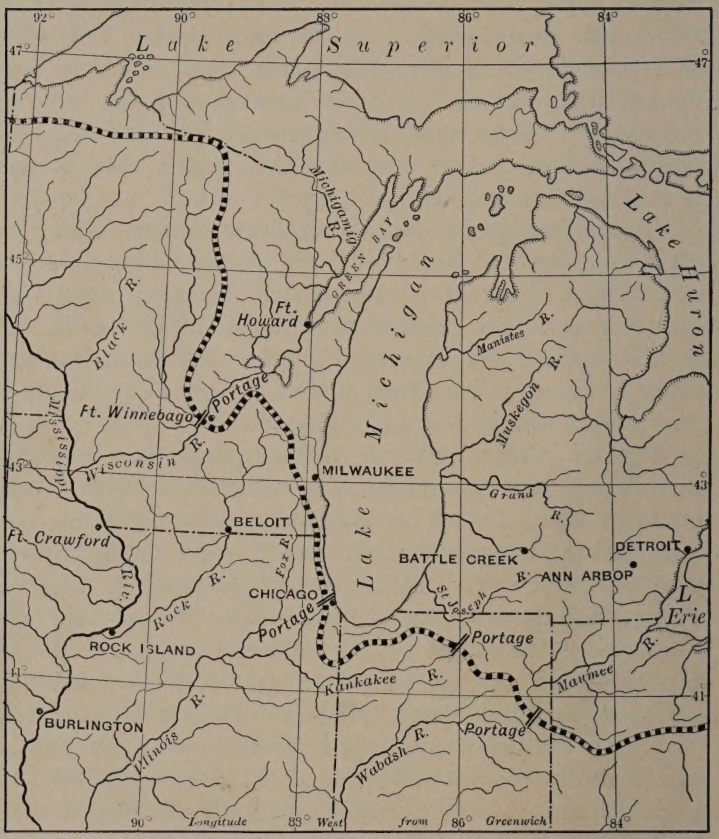
The French Become Active. The French were very angry. The Governor General of Canada sent a company of men under Captain Louis Celleron to explore the country between Detroit and the Alleghany Mountains. Celleron took possession of this territory in the name of Louis XV, and notified the Governor of Pennsylvania to keep hands off.

"The French and Indian War." In 1754 the French were engaged in building a fort at the junction of the Monongahela and Allegheny Rivers, where the city of Pittsburgh now stands. Much alarmed, the governor of Virginia sent George Washington, then a young lieutenant, with some two hundred men to stop the building of this fort. They were repulsed by the French and forced to return home. But war with the French was on, and it continued for almost eight years.

Ouiatanon and Miamis Come Under British Rule. We are not concerned here with the details of the "French and Indian War," as it is called. The next thing that interests us is the surrender of Montreal to the British in 1760. With that surrender the forts at Ouiatanon and Miamis came under British rule. Vincennes, being a part of Louisiana, remained French.

Pontiac's War. The next three years were years of disturbance and unrest for the whole Northwest Territoritory. The French were eager to regain the lost section, and the Indians chafed under the rule of the English, who managed them with far less understanding than the French had done. Headed by Pontiac, the Indians made war against the English. Fort Miamis was treacherously captured and the garrison held prisoners. Detroit was besieged, and the entire territory was in a state of turmoil. In 1763 a treaty was signed between the French and English by which the French king gave up all title to lands east of the Mississippi, barring the city of New Orleans, and a small territory adjacent. This treaty of course included Vincennes, and the forts in Illinois. It was impossible for the English to take possession of any of these posts, for the Indians continued hostile, and occupied the attention of the few troops in the region.

Pontiac Makes Peace. Meanwhile, St. Ange was ordered by his superior to remove to Fort Chartres and



PORTAGES BETWEEN THE GREAT LAKES AND THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER

take command there. He obeyed this order and left Vincennes in the hands of a subordinate. Pontiac sought St. Ange's aid against the English, but that brave commander told him that the French and English were "now

as one nation." Failing likewise to get French aid from New Orleans, Pontiac finally, in 1765, met the English in council at Fort Ouiatanon and announced that the French were no longer his friends; that he would no longer war against the English and desired to make peace. This treaty which was ratified at Detroit was kept for many years.

English Take Possession of Northwest. In October of 1765, St. Ange formally delivered Fort Chartres to the English, and the territory, including Indiana, passed under the English crown. The country was left practically alone for nearly ten years. In 1772, General Gage, then commander-in-chief of all the British forces in America, ordered all persons who had settled west of the Alleghany Mountains to quit their homes, and join some of the English colonies to the East. The French settlers in Indiana protested, and the matter finally came to the attention of Parliament. In 1774, an act was passed securing the civil and religious rights of all the French inhabitants on English soil in America. The inhabitants of Vincennes, many of them children of the original colonists, were greatly relieved, and settled down once more to the enjoyment of quiet village life.

Abbott at Vincennes. In 1777, Lieutenant Governor Abbott arrived at Vincennes from Detroit, bringing with him an escort of Canadian soldiers. He found the village in rather a deplorable condition. He took command of the fort and did his best to get the little colony reëstablished according to some idea of civic order. He endeared himself very greatly to the people by his kindness and his efforts to improve their village. The people greatly regretted his departure, which occured a few months later. Meanwhile the American Revolution had begun. Indiana was at first untouched by the great conflict, but later it played an important part.

CHAPTER IV

THE CONQUEST OF THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY

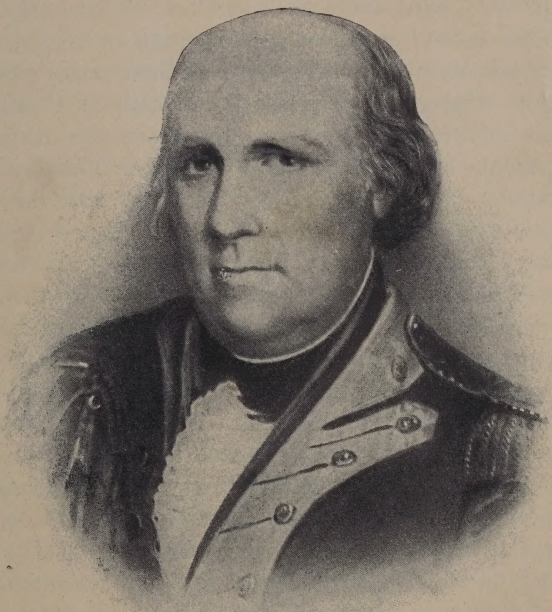
GEORGE ROGERS CLARK, THE "HANNIBAL OF THE WEST."

French Are Loyal to Great Britain. The act of Parliament which gave to the French their old civil and religious rights was passed, so the American colonists asserted, as a means of gaining the French to the English side, and to prevent their joining the rebellious colonies further south. At any rate, the act had the effect of making the newly acquired French colonists in Canada and elsewhere loyal supporters of the British throughout the war of Independence.

Indians. Between the French and Indians there had always been close sympathy and clear understanding. Largely through French influence, therefore, the Indians engaged in war, and fought on the British side. They were supplied with British guns and ammunition, and encouraged by presents of trinkets and fire-water. The instructions to one of the British officers read: "It is the King's command that you should direct Lieutenant Governor Hamilton to assemble as many of the Indians of his district as he conveniently can, and placing a proper person at their head, to conduct their parties, and restrain them from committing violence on the well-affected, inoffensive inhabitants, employ them in making a diversion and exciting an alarm on the frontiers of Virginia and Pennsylvania." Furthermore, a premium was offered for the scalps of Americans.

Frontiersmen Retaliate on Indians. Angered beyond reason by the awful deeds of violence committed by the Indians, the frontiersmen sought retaliation with almost equal violence. The Indians that fell into their hands were murdered, a circumstance which made matters much worse by turning certain friendly Indians away from the American to the British side.

George Rogers Clark. The frontier needed a leader—a man who could stop these depredations, and gain the



GEORGE ROGERS CLARK
(From a portrait owned by the Vincennes University)

great tract of fertile land comprised in the Northwest Territory for the future United States. George Rogers Clark, a young Virginia surveyor, and a man of the stuff

that heroes and leaders are made of, was that man. He settled in Kentucky in 1776. Largely through his efforts, Kentucky became a county of Virginia, and the executive council of that state was brought to contribute powder and funds for defense against the Indians.

Clark's Plans. Clark realized that the only way to stop the Indian atrocities was to capture the chain of British forts. Kaskaskia, Vincennes and Detroit were the points where the Indians received their arms and ammunition and were paid their bounties for scalps. Through spies, Clark gained evidence of the truth of all this, and learned in addition that the settlers at these posts—French and others—though supporting the British at that time, were not unfriendly to the Americans or the American cause. With this information, Clark went before Governor Patrick Henry of Virginia, and presented his plan for the conquest of the Northwest. So earnest was he, and so well did he present his case, that the Governor and council were convinced of the necessity of action. On January 2, 1778, Patrick Henry issued two sets of instructions to young Clark—one public, one private. The public instructions authorized him to raise seven companies of fifty men each for militia service in Kentucky; the private instructions authorized him to use these men to strike at the British posts of the Northwest. Raising the companies was no easy matter; enemies worked against the young commander, and even his friends did not help him. Had it been made public that the enlisted men were really to move against the British posts in the Northwest, the whole matter would have fallen through then and there. At last, about a hundred and fifty men were enlisted, and Clark started with them for Kentucky. He went northward until he reached a branch of the Ohio, and then made the remainder of the journey by boat. At

the mouth of the Kentucky River he was joined by a few more men, and the entire party continued down the Ohio to the falls, where they landed on Corn Island and built a block house for the protection of supplies and for the safety of some settlers who had made the journey with the soldiers.

March on Kaskaskia. When Clark read his private instructions to the men there was much discontent and ill-feeling. Quite a number deserted and made their way back home. With strict discipline Clark whipped his little army into shape and proceeded toward Kaskaskia. He wrote later: "I knew that my case was desperate, but the more I reflected on my weakness, the more I was pleased with the enterprise."

Kaskaskia and Vincennes Taken. He surprised Kaskaskia in the night and captured it. The French settlers were at first terrorized, for the British had told them that the Americans were worse than the Indians. Clark explained the American cause to them. They then met in their church and prayed and talked over the situation in which they found themselves. Father Gibault, later connected with Vincennes, did much to calm the fears of the people and win them over to the Americans. Clark, meanwhile, had shut himself in the fort, and did not permit the villagers to know the size of his force. He represented it as much larger than it really was, and also gave out that he had a large force at the falls of the Ohio, and could get any number of men from Kentucky by simply calling for them. He announced his intention of marching against Vincennes and destroying it. The French in Kaskaskia plead against such a course, for they had friends and relatives in Vincennes. Father Gibault offered to go to Vincennes and win over the inhabitants to the American cause. This proposition was exactly what Clark had been

working for, and of course he consented. He remained in Kaskaskia, while Father Gibault and a Doctor Lafonte, together with a small following, among whom Clark had not neglected to include a spy, set out for Vincennes. The Commandant of Vincennes, Abbott, was at Detroit, and had left no garrison. In two days after the arrival of the party from Kaskaskia, the American flag waved over Fort Sackville, as the fortress of Vincennes was then called.

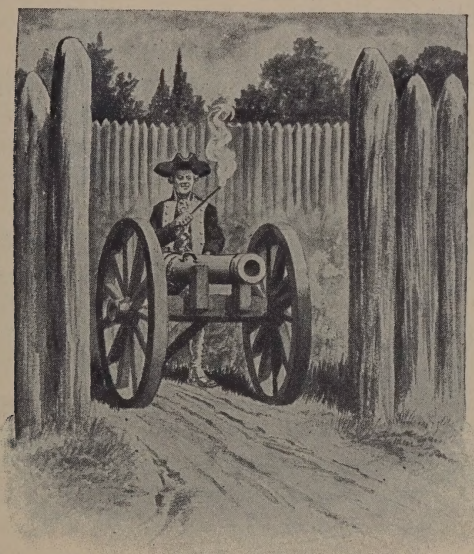
Clark Reenlists His Men. The time of enlistment for Clark's recruits had meanwhile expired, and that daring young commander was at his wit's ends to know how to hold his men. He succeeded, however, in reënlisting for eight months longer—without any authority other than his own—about one hundred men, who were induced to stay by liberal promises of land grants and other bounties.

The Indians Treat with the Americans. In the meantime, Clark set to work bringing about friendly relations with the Indians and strengthening his friendship with the French settlers. He was remarkably successful in both of these efforts. The Indians about Vincennes were under a chief called Tabac, with whom Clark, through Captain Leonard Helm, whom he had placed in command at Vincennes, entered into negotiations. Tabac, after several days of pow-wowing, and the consumption of a large quantity of rum, declared himself of the opinion that the British were wrong, and the Big Knives, as he called the Americans, were right. It was not long before many of the Indian tribes of the Northwest began to flock to Vincennes to follow the example of Tabac and treat with the "Big Knife" chief. Daily, through the desertion of their Indian allies, the British lost ground.

British Still Confident. But with true British tenacity, they refused to give up the Northwest without a strug-

gle. They knew that Clark's forces were pitifully small, that his audacity and cunning, and the force of his personality, were responsible for his success; they knew that he had no reserves of men or ammunition on which to draw, and they argued that his sheer pluck and daring could not continue to hold the vast region over which he had gained control.

British Recapture Vincennes. Hamilton, the Lieutenant Governor of Detroit, collected an army of thirty



BRITISH RECAPTURE VINCENNES

regulars, fifty French volunteers, and four hundred Indians, and marched against Vincennes. He reached the fort on the 15th of December, 1778, and found it garrisoned by two men, Captain Leonard Helm and a private. The

inhabitants made no attempt to defend the town. Captain Helm and his one private, however, demanded the terms of surrender, standing in the open doorway of the fort by a loaded cannon pointed at the British ranks. When informed by Hamilton that he should be conceded all the honors of war, Helm, and his garrison of one man, marched out of the fort with due ceremony.

Vigo Brings News of the Capture to Clark. Clark was still at Kaskaskia, and knew nothing of the movements of the British and their capture of Vincennes. Information of conditions at Vincennes was finally brought to Kaskaskia by Francis Vigo, a man we hear much of in the later history of Vincennes and Indiana. Hamilton had a garrison of eighty men and was well supplied with all necessities, both ammunition and food. Vigo also brought news that in the spring the hostile Indians were to meet at Vincennes and attack the Kentucky frontier. A large detachment of regular soldiers were to join Hamilton at the same time, bringing with them supplies and ammunition.

Clark Sets Out for Vincennes. Clearly the time to strike was at once. Clark acted with his usual courage and daring, and began immediate preparations for marching against the post on the Wabash. A large river boat was fitted up, mounted with six guns, loaded with artillery and provisions, manned with forty-six men under Lieutenant Rogers, and dispatched to await the troops at a point near Vincennes. This boat, called the "Willing," sailed February 4, 1779. The following day Clark set out from Kaskaskia with one hundred and thirty men.

Difficulties of the March. The distance to Vincennes was one hundred and sixty miles. The unbroken prairies of Illinois had been turned into plains of mud and lakes of water by the continuous rains. The weather was cold

and raw, yet most of this long march lay through mud and water which the men must wade. The hardships of that march seem too terrible for us to realize at the present day. Major Bowman, one of the men under Clark's command, kept a journal of the expedition wherein he recounted from day to day the trials and sufferings of the brave little band. The true stories of courage and hardship told in this journal are not surpassed in the annals of any people.

Last Days of the March. On the morning of the 18th of February, after having marched fourteen days, Clark

CLARK'S MARCH TO VINCENNES

found himself ten miles from Vincennes. The entire surrounding country was flooded The provisions of the party were gone, and in the waste of waters no game could be found to serve as food. The men could not even find dry land to sleep on at night. They set to mak-

ing canoes, and sent out a party in one of them to try to find some trace of the "Willing." The party was unsuccessful in finding the boat, and returned to join their half-starved companions. On the 20th, a party of Frenchmen in a boat passed one of the sentries and told him that the British were still unaware of the approach of Clark, and that the inhabitants of Vincennes were well disposed toward the Americans. That same day one of the soldiers killed a deer—which was the only food the entire army had until the 24th. On the 21st the men were ferried across the river to a small hill. They marched from it through water, sometimes up to their necks, to another bit of dry land nearer the town. On the 23rd, they came in sight of the town and again made camp. That day they captured a man who was hunting ducks. He told them that their approach was still unsuspected. Clark sent a letter by him to the inhabitants. The letter, which follows, is characteristic:

Clark's Letter to the Inhabitants of Vincennes. "To the Inhabitants of Post Vincennes:

"*Gentlemen*: Being now within two miles of your village with my army, determined to take your fort this night, and not being willing to surprise you, I take this method to request such of you as are true citizens, and willing to enjoy the liberty I bring you, to remain still in your houses. And those, if any there be, that are friends to the King, will instantly repair to the fort and join the Hairbuyer-General* and fight like men. And if any such as do not go to the Fort shall be discovered afterwards, they may depend on severe punishment. On the contrary, those who are true sons to liberty, may depend on being well treated. And I once more request them to

*Referring to Hamilton's offer of bounties for the scalps of Americans.

keep out of the streets, for every one I find in arms on my arrival, I shall treat as an enemy.

G. R. Clark."

Attack Made. In order to give time for the reading of this letter, the army remained in concealment until after sundown, when they began the march of two miles on the town. They reached it about eight o'clock, and took possession, throwing up an intrenchment and opening fire on the fort. Only one man was seriously injured during the night.

The British Surrender. In the morning Clark sent a messenger to Hamilton ordering him to surrender. Hamilton refused, but later in the day asked for three days' truce. Clark refused to consider this, demanding instant surrender. The two officers met in the village church and after much parleying, Hamilton signed the articles of surrender as dictated by Clark. On the morning of the 25th, the British garrison marched out, and the American flag was raised over the fort, never again to be replaced by the flag of another nation. The next day the British officers and thirty-eight soldiers who were returning to Post Vincennes, as guard to seven boatloads of provisions, were captured by the Americans. The "Willing" arrived too late to be of any service, a fact that caused great chagrin to the officer in charge and to the men under him.

Disposal of Prisoners. The British prisoners in this remote region presented quite a problem. The common soldiers were released after they had taken oath not to bear arms against the American colonies again. The officers were finally sent to Virginia and released after some months, by the command of General Washington.

George Rogers Clark. George Rogers Clark has been called the "Hannibal of the West." Though he was and will always be a popular hero, the United States Govern-

ment never accorded him either proper reward or appreciation for his services. When we consider the vast territory he added to the United States, and the incalculable wealth of that territory to-day, the injustice of his treatment becomes fully apparent. It has remained for those who came after him to fully appreciate the wonderful deeds of this heroic man, whose actual hardships and trials in serving his country, as well as his achievements, were not surpassed by any other one man in the war for American independence.

CHAPTER V

FRONTIER HISTORY

Indian Hostilities. The history of the next fifteen years—1779 to 1794—is a record of bloody Indian wars, marked, on the part of both whites and red men, by a brutality that we can scarcely believe possible in this day of wide-spread peace. The whites resorted to the Indian mode of fighting, and gave no quarter, tomahawking, and carrying home bloody scalps just as did the Indians. On both sides innocent women and children were massacred in wholesale fashion. Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois were the scenes of continual butchering, with human beings as the victims. It has been estimated that between the close of the revolutionary war and 1790, the Indians killed 1,500 people, and ran off 20,000 horses on the frontier region, and that, in addition, other property, consisting of money, merchandise, household goods, wearing apparel, etc., of great value was taken.*

Government Refuses to Aid Settlers. Repeated letters to the President and other governmental officials had little effect. Murmurings against the government were heard on all sides, and finally the determination to avenge themselves arose in the breasts of the sturdy pioneers. We can scarcely blame them for any of their violence or brutality. What they endured we can not appreciate now. They suffered heavy loss, but they gradually forced the Indians back and won the fertile lands we now enjoy.

* NOTE.—From a letter written by Judge Innes to the Secretary of War, July 1790. See Burnet's "Notes" p. 91.

Need of Organized Effort. This awful condition of affairs on the frontier continued so long largely because of the poverty of the new federal government, and the lack of a leader on the frontier itself who was able to organize the forces at hand and lead them to victory. The whites fought only in small bodies—seldom over a thousand men. They were usually gathered hastily and lacked discipline and training. They were successful when they surprised the Indians, but seldom so when they met them in an equal encounter. We find many accounts in the old records of a handful of whites slipping on an Indian village, murdering the inhabitants, destroying stores of food, burning the huts and retiring before the neighboring Indians were aware of what had happened. In revenge the Indians did the same thing. They attacked outlying settlements, murdered the inhabitants, pillaged the houses, and then applied the torch.

Bowman's Raid. The early summer of 1779 saw one of the first organized raids on the Indians. It was commanded by Colonel John Bowman of Kentucky, who had three hundred men under him. They marched against an Indian town on the Little Miami River, but were unsuccessful in their attempt to surprise it In the fight with the Indians Bowman lost eight men.

Byrd's Expedition. The following spring an expedition against the settlements in Kentucky was headed by Captain Byrd, who set out from Detroit with a force of six hundred men, most of them Indians. They were supplied with English guns and ammunition, and Byrd was a regular officer in the English service. Several small posts were attacked, and then, for some unknown reason, the party beat a hasty retreat to Detroit.

Clark in Command. Byrd's expedition was not in itself so very important, but it roused the Kentuckians

to action again. George Rogers Clark organized a force of about a thousand men to move against the Indian villages on the Little Miami and Big Miami Rivers. In spite of its numbers, this expedition proved a failure. While making an attack on a large Indian town the force was repulsed with a loss of twenty men, and retired toward Kentucky where it was disbanded.

The Year 1782. During the next two years the warfare continued without the slightest interruption. On the whole, the Indians were more successful than the whites. The loss in lives sustained by the settlers was very heavy. The year 1782 was one of horror—the most bloody ever known on the western frontier. First came a massacre of Moravian Indians by a party from western Pennsylvania. Two weeks later came a fight at Estell's Station in Kentucky. In May, Colonel William Crawford headed an expedition of 480 volunteers from Pennsylvania, and in an engagement on the upper Sandusky River the force was defeated with a loss of over a hundred men. Crawford was captured and burned at the stake with unspeakable tortures. In November, 1782, General Clark organized another large force—something over a thousand men—and marched into the Indian country to destroy the Shawnee and other villages on the banks of the Big and Little Miami Rivers. On this expedition he was more successful than he had been on his former one. The principal Shawnee town was destroyed, and the British trading post at the head of the Miami shared a like fate. The loss to the Indians was ten killed, seven captured and two whites retaken. Clark's force suffered the loss of one killed and one wounded.

Treaty of Peace with England. September 3, 1783, a definite treaty of peace was signed by the United States and Great Brtiain. This was ratified by Congress in

January of the following year. The war had really come to a close with the surrender of Cornwallis in 1781. By the treaty, however, the definite boundaries were established, and British aid to the Indians, openly at least, ceased.

George Rogers Clark. In July, 1783, George Rogers Clark was honorably discharged from military service by the Governor of Virginia, who returned to Clark the thanks of himself and the council for his services. It is probable that if Virginia had properly supported Clark in his ventures in 1778 to 1781, that he would (to quote Mr. Dunn*) "have made Vincennes a stepping stone to Detroit, Detroit to Niagara and Niagara to Montreal and Quebec." Because of this lack of support he saw a great opportunity slip from his grasp. When he received the sword from the Virginia authorities in testimony of his services, he thrust it in the ground, snapped it off and flung away the hilt, exclaiming bitterly: "I asked Virginia for bread, and she sent me a sword."

Congress Sets Time for a Treaty. The Indians continued their depredations, fighting, as they believed, for their homes and hunting grounds. With the hope of ending the trouble, Congress, March 18, 1785, passed a resolution calling for a treaty with the Indian tribes, to be held at Vincennes in June of that same year. The object of the proposed treaty was to establish boundary lines between the United States and the Indian Nations.

Opposition to Treaty. The Indians were greatly aroused by this proposal. The French settlers and the Illinois and Wabash land companies, claiming their territory through Indian grants, were equally excited. Neither the Miami Indians, the French settlers, nor the land companies were disposed to give up their claims to the Fed-

* Dunn's "Indiana," page 162.

eral Government. To complicate matters, the British still held Detroit, and Spain claimed both the right and left banks of the Mississippi.

Hostile Indians Meet. The Indians who opposed making a treaty with the United States Government met at Ouiatanon, on the Wabash, in August, 1785. Representatives from all the tribes whose lands were concerned were present. To make the temper of the Indians worse, a very unfortunate incident happened about this time at Vincennes. An Indian killed one of the French settlers, and a party of friends of this man fell on a body of Indians, killing four and wounding several more. Angered by this, the council at Ouiatanon sent an envoy to their "former friends, the French," at Vincennes, notifying them that they must remove at once, for the Indians intended making war on all Americans, and if the French did not leave Vincennes they would be regarded as enemies, and massacred without mercy.

Conditions At and Near Vincennes. Vincennes paid little or no attention to these threats. The court continued its sessions, granting tracts of land to any one who would pay the requisite fee. The settlers who attempted to cultivate these tracts suffered either massacre by the Indians, or what was often worse, capture. Conditions finally became such that all settlers either moved temporarily to Vincennes or down into Kentucky. The hostility of the Indians stopped all progress in the new country. It interfered with the land companies, with the settlement of the new territory, and with the attempts of Congress to establish the rights of the Federal Government to the lands on the northwest side of the Ohio River.

Clark Directed to Move Against the Indians. Meanwhile the Indian depredations became so open and so numerous that General Clark, after having repeatedly

informed Governor Henry of Virginia of the state of affairs, was, on the 15th day of May, 1785, finally directed to assemble the field-officers of the Kentucky Militia and have them take the necessary steps for the protection of the settlements. Clark was appointed commander of the forces, and it was resolved to invade the Indian country.

Clark's Campaign of 1785. In September, Clark set out with a force of a thousand men. They marched from the falls of the Ohio toward Vincennes, reaching there early in October. They encamped, and awaited the arrival of their provision boat. Clark sent Captain Benjamin Logan back to Kentucky to raise another force, and proceed northeastward to attack some of the Indian towns on the Big and Little Miami rivers. Meanwhile, the troops encamped near Vincennes began to grow dissatisfied. When the provision boat arrived, half the food was spoiled, and this put the men in bad humor. To make matters worse, Clark was not the man he had been in the days of his early campaigns. He was drinking hard, and because of this had lost the confidence of his men. But despite the unwillingness of the soldiers, Clark reënforced his army from among the inhabitants of Vincennes, and marched against an Indian village on the Vermilion River. Clark was now constantly intoxicated, and his men lost faith in him. Rumors were circulated among the soldiers that their commander had sent a flag to the Indians offering them peace, and at this, three hundred of the army deserted in a body. As a result the entire expedition was abandoned.

Colonel Logan's Expedition. Colonel Logan was more successful in his venture. He raised between four and five hundred mounted riflemen and penetrated into the Indian country as far as the head waters of the Mad River. He

burned eight large towns, took over seventy prisoners and killed twenty warriors. His own loss was but ten men.

Garrison Established at Vincennes. When Clark's expedition reached Vincennes, a council of the field officers was held, and it was "unanimously agreed that a garrison at that place would be of essential service to the district of Kentucky, and that supplies might be had in the district more than sufficient for their support, by impressment, or otherwise, under the direction of a commissary to be appointed for that purpose, pursuant to the authority vested in the field-officers of the district by the executive of Virginia." The same board appointed Mr. John Craig, Jr., a commissary of purchases, and resolved that one field officer and two hundred and fifty men (exclusive of a company of artillery, to be commanded by Captain Valentine Thomas Dalton), be recruited to garrison Fort Vincennes; and that Colonel John Holder be appointed to command the troops in the service. Clark took control of everything connected with the establishment of the garrison, and in addition, called a council with the Indian Chiefs at Clarksville, at the falls of the Ohio. The Indians favored a council, but wanted it held at the place where they had "been accustomed to speak"—at Post Vincennes. To this Clark agreed, proposing the last of April, 1787, as the time.

Troubled Because of Method Used to Supply Garrison. Clark's troubles now began. The executive board of Virginia failed to support him and the field-officers under his command, in their establishment of the garrison at Vincennes, and in the impressment of supplies for its support. The cause of most of the trouble lay in the fact that the supplies appropriated were the goods of certain Spanish merchants recently established at Vincennes. The United States and Spain were at that time on the

verge of war over the western boundary of our country and the right of American citizens to use the Mississippi River for navigation. Clark and his associates knew that Spain would not permit Americans to pass down the river with boats of merchandise, and they were aroused over this arbitrary attitude. Furthermore, the Spanish merchants whose goods were seized had, so Clark asserted, and with good proof, furnished the Indians with military and other stores. The Spaniards along the Mississippi had made many seizures of goods belonging to Americans, and Clark regarded his action as justifiable, on the ground that "turn about is fair play." Clark did not know that Congress had voted a temporary relinquishment of the rights of navigation on the Mississippi, and that Spain had, therefore, a perfect right to seize the boats and goods of Americans found navigating the stream.

Clark's Justification. In spite of the work of many enemies, and the open censure of the Virginia authorities, the western people as a whole upheld Clark's action. Virginia had ordered the field-officers to take measures for the protection of the frontier; they met and chose Clark to command them; he accepted, and because there was no provision made by the Virginia legislature for supplying the troops, he had to resort to the first expedient that came to hand. Before taking the step, Clark and the field-officers obtained the best legal advice of the territory and acted under it, so the question of blame seems eliminated.

Last Days of George Rogers Clark. The controversy over Clark's action had the unfortunate effect of sinking him deeper into the slough of despondency. He fell into a state of "sullen indignation." Judge Burnet, who visited Clark in 1799 says: "The cruel ingratitude to which this distinguished soldier was doomed—for which no justifiable

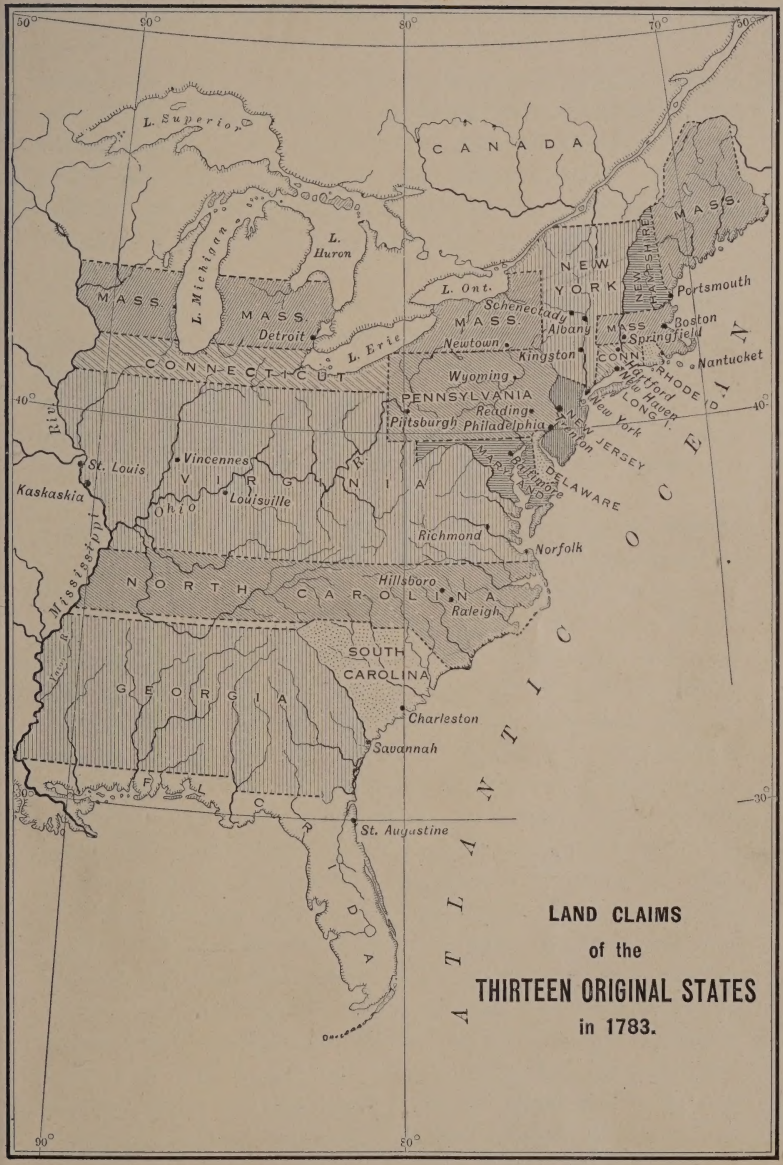
cause can be assigned—and the comparative poverty, which made him almost a pensioner on the bounty of his relatives, was more than he could bear. . . . He sought the inebriating bowl, as if it contained the water of Lethe, and could obliterate from his memory the wrongs he had endured."

CHAPTER VI

THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY AND THE ORDINANCE OF 1787

Treaty by Which the United States Gained the Northwest Territory Jay, Adams and Franklin, in negotiating the treaty of peace that closed the war of the Revolution, had great difficulty in saving for the United States the great Northwest. The English commissioners presented many schemes and plans that would have allowed England to retain much of this valuable region. Our commissioners, however, were finally successful in fixing the western boundary at the Mississippi and the northern boundary at a line through the centers of Lake Erie, Ontario, Huron and Superior. Our claims to this territory were based upon the original grants given by England to the various colonies and upon the actual conquest of the Northwest territory by George Rogers Clark.

Claims of the Various States. The Northwest territory was claimed in part by Massachusetts, Connecticut and Virginia. These states had received grants from the English crown for strips of land that extended "to the setting sun." New York laid claim to all the territory north of the Ohio River and west of the Alleghany Mountains because of a treaty with the Iroquois Indians. The claims of these various states were conflicting and overlapping. Through the influence of wise statesmen, the states finally transferred their claims to the general government. Thus the territory north of the Ohio River became the common property of the United States. The



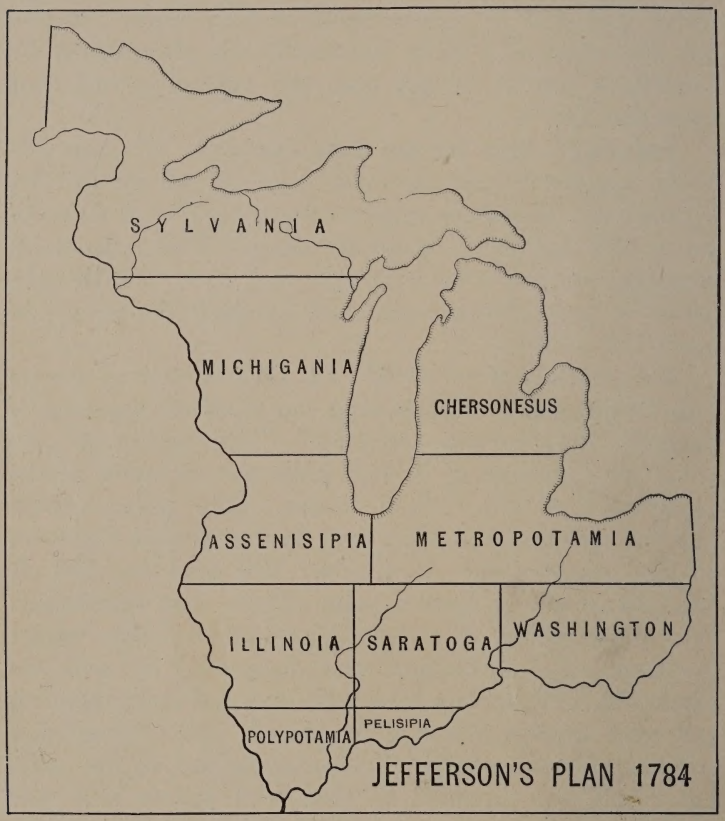
LAND CLAIMS OF THE THIRTEEN ORIGINAL STATES

cession of these lands to the general government solved one of the most difficult problems that confronted the young republic. It removed the cause of jealousy by the states that had no claims upon western lands. It also had the effect of helping nationalize the government by creating a public domain that the general government must care for.

Jefferson's Plan for the New Territory. Thomas Jefferson suggested that the new territory be divided by parallels and meridians into ten states, and that these be given high sounding, classical names. This suggestion, however, did not meet with approval, as it was thought better to make fewer states and to allow the people to select the names.

The Ordinance of 1785. In 1785, Congress passed "An Ordinance for ascertaining the mode of disposing of lands in the Western territory." This ordinance provided for a system of survey under the direction of the Geographer of the United States. The plan adopted was the one that has been used by the United States in all land surveys since that date. The land was laid off into townships six miles square. These were determined by running lines north and south and others at right angles to these. The townships were designated by numbers north and south from a fixed base line, and by ranges east and west from a principal meridian. The original plan provided for no smaller division than the square mile. Later this was modified so that each square mile was divided into forty-acre lots. This system of land survey covered all of Indiana except the old French surveys in and about Vincennes, and Clark's grant in Clark and Scott Counties. The latter was a grant of land made to George Rogers Clark for his services in the northwest. It was laid out according to the old French system of surveying.

School Fund from Public Land. It was in the ordinance of 1785, that provision was made by which one



PLAN PROPOSED BY JEFFERSON

square mile in every township, section sixteen, was set apart for the support of public schools. This was a far reaching act of statesmanship, and has resulted in giving

to the various states of the Northwest a large public school endowment.

Ordinance of 1787. The ordinance of 1787 was enacted July 13th of that year. There has been much dispute about the authorship of this important document. Nathan Dane, Thomas Jefferson, Manasseh Cutler, and Rufus King have all had staunch advocates. It is well established that Nathan Dane was the secretary of the committee, and that the language and form of the document are due to him. The matter of the ordinance was a sort of composite from the various members of the committee

Greatness of the Ordinance. It is a great state paper, whose authorship would honor any man. In speaking of it, George F Hoar says: "The ordinance of 1787 belongs with the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. It is one of the three title deeds of American constitutional liberty." Daniel Webster says of it: "We are accustomed to praise the lawgivers of antiquity; we help to perpetuate the fame of Solon and Lycurgus; but I doubt whether one single law of any lawgiver, ancient or modern, has produced effects of more distinct, marked and lasting character than the ordinance of 1787."

Provisions of the Ordinance. The first part of the ordinance provided in detail a plan of government for the new territory. Temporarily it was to be in one district, but might be divided into two if Congress deemed it expedient. It ordained that landed estates of all persons dying intestate should be divided among the children, or, if there were no children, among those next of kin, in equal shares. This proviso was in harmony with a recent enactment in Virginia that removed *entail* and *primogeniture* from the laws of that state.

Government of the Territory. It was provided that the territory should be under the general control of a gov-

ernor appointed by Congress for a term of three years, a secretary appointed for a term of four years, and three judges to serve during good behavior. The election of a general assembly was to occur as soon as there should be "5000 free male inhabitants of full age in the district." Until a general assembly met, the Governor and judges were required to adopt and publish such civil and criminal laws of the original states as they might deem necessary and best suited to the people of the new territory. The legislature was to consist of the governor, the legislative council, and the house of representatives. The members of the house were to be selected by popular vote. It was provided "That a free-hold in fifty acres of land in the district, having been a citizen of one of the states, and being a resident in the district, or the like free-hold and two years' residence in the district, shall be necessary to qualify a man as an elector of a representative." It was required that the governor reside in the territory, and have a "free-hold estate thereon in one thousand acres." The secretary, judges, and members of the council were each required to "have free-hold estate in five hundred acres." Representatives were required to own, in fee simple, two hundred acres of land. The legislative council consisted of five members elected by Congress from a list of ten members nominated by the House of Representatives. Representatives served for two years, and members of the legislative council for five years, unless sooner removed by Congress.

Compact between the Original States and the New Territory. The second part of the ordinance took the form of a compact between the original states and the new territory This compact was to remain forever unalterable unless by common consent. It is so important that a brief summary of its articles is given:—

ARTICLE ONE declares that "no person, demeaning himself in a peaceable and orderly manner, shall ever be molested on account of his mode of worship or religious sentiments."

ARTICLE TWO guarantees the writ of Habeas Corpus, trial by jury, proportional representation in the legislature, and the privilege of the common law. It further provides that all persons guilty of an offense, unless it be a capital one, shall be allowed bail. Unusual punishments are prohibited, and the taking of either liberty or property without due process of law, is denied.

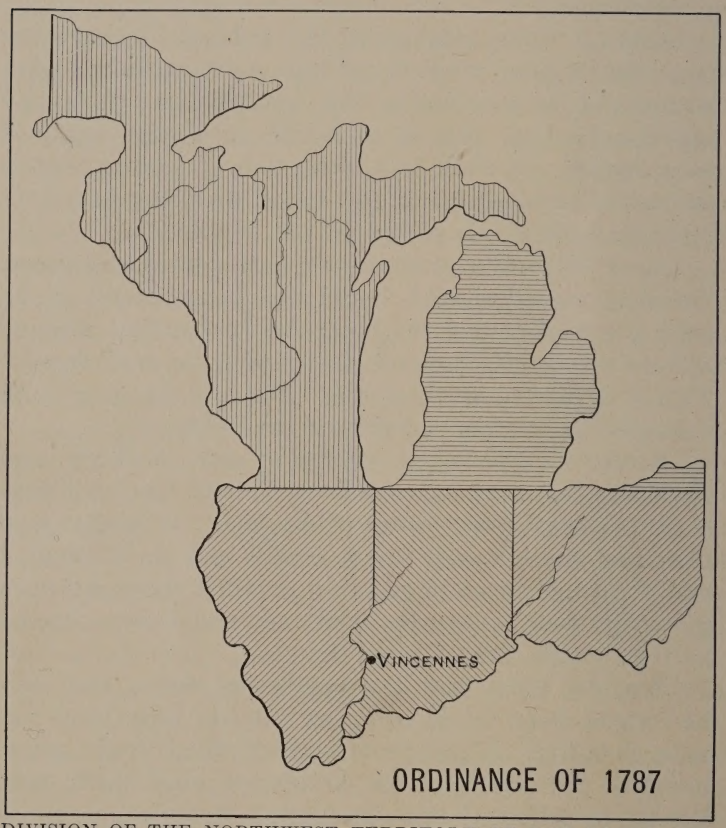
ARTICLE THREE contains the oft quoted statement, "religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools, and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." This article also provides that "The utmost good faith shall always be observed toward the Indians."

ARTICLE FOUR says that the new territory and the states that may be made from it, shall forever remain a part of the United States of America. It further provides that the navigable waters leading into the Mississippi and the St. Lawrence, and the carrying places between the same, shall be common highways and forever free to all the citizens of the United States.

ARTICLE FIVE fixes the number of states that may be formed from the territory at not less than three nor more than five. It also provides that whenever the population of a district shall be 60,000 free inhabitants, that it may be admitted into the United States on an equal footing with the original states, provided its constitution and government shall be republican and in conformity to the principles contained in the ordinance.

ARTICLE SIX reads "There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in said territory, otherwise than

in punishment for crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted: Provided, always, that any person



DIVISION OF THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY BY THE ORDINANCE OF 1787

escaping into the same, from whom labor or service is lawfully claimed in any one of the original states, such

fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed and conveyed to the person claiming his or her labor or services as aforesaid."

Area of the New Territory. The Northwest Territory comprised the area now included in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin. It was an empire in extent, containing 265,878 square miles. The rich soil, the great resources of timber, coal and minerals, the fine climate, and the exceptionally good means for water transportation made it almost ideal. The free government and many privileges guaranteed by the Ordinance of 1787, added to its attractiveness. In view of these facts, it is not surprising that numbers of settlers hurried into the new territory.

CHAPTER VII

INDIAN WARS AND TREATIES

Arthur St. Clair Becomes Governor. Soon after the passing of the Ordinance of 1787, Arthur St Clair was elected by Congress as governor of the Northwest Territory. St. Clair was a Scotchman by birth, but had come to America in 1755 and had seen much military service, fighting with Wolf at Quebec, and later serving as an officer throughout the Revolutionary War.

Hamtramck in Command at Vincennes. St Clair did not arrive at Vincennes until nearly a year after his election, and in the meantime Major John F. Hamtramck, commandant of the post, had charge of civil as well as military affairs. Major Hamtramck was a wise and efficient man, and his management did much for the betterment of conditions at the post. He issued a proclamation prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors to the Indians, which was the first liquor law in Indiana. He acted as judge in settling personal troubles between the inhabitants, and greatly pleased them by his justice and impartiality.

St. Clair Arrives at Vincennes. St Clair arrived in July, 1788, and began to organize the government of the new territory at once. Laws were made, judges were appointed, and courts organized. In form, at least, the new territory had all that went to make up government in any of the older states of the East. The distances from settlement to settlement, the wilderness, the Indian troubles, and the many other conditions found in the new

region, made it impossible for the government to operate efficiently.

Trouble with the Indians. The Indians continued to be very hostile. The British encouraged them in this hostility and furnished them with guns and ammunition, for as long as the Americans were kept busy protecting their frontier, the army posts on American soil, which the British had not yet given up, were safe. Their aid made it possible for the Indians to hold out much longer than they could otherwise have done, and the presence of Canadian and English recruits among the Indian war parties gave them added strength. Treaties made with the red men were almost useless under these conditions, for by their white allies they were easily persuaded to break them. Still hoping that the Indians might be won over by peaceable means, Governor St. Clair, in the spring of 1790, sent a representative named Gamelin among the different Indian tribes with speeches addressed to each, urging peace. To these overtures the red men refused to listen. and the settlers saw that the only way to put an end to the continual outrages committed on the frontier was by an Indian war.

Harmar's Expedition. Under General Harmar, a large body of men was organized, drilled, and made ready for an Indian campaign. The army consisted of three battalions of Virginia militia, one battalion of Pennsylvania militia, one battalion of light mounted troops, and two battalions of regular troops. The total number was 1,453 men. The army set out in the early fall of 1790 from Fort Washington, which was on the site of the present city of Cincinnati. The men were too hastily gathered and too poorly drilled to be a real fighting body, but General Harmar started out with them nevertheless, and moved northward toward the Indian villages on the Big and Little Miami Rivers.

The Expedition Proves a Failure. In the first skirmish the militia proved almost useless, for they fled at the first alarm. The small body of regular soldiers, about four hundred in number, were the only men on whom General Harmar could rely. An engagement occurred on the 18th of October, in which the army was defeated by a much smaller body of Indians, and lost nearly a hundred men. Most of the killed and wounded were among the regular soldiers. Several other encounters with the Indians took place, nearly all of them resulting disastrously for the whites. When the army finally reached Fort Washington on its return from the campaign, November 2d, the loss had amounted to 183 killed, and 31 wounded.

Scott and Wilkinson Make Successful Raids. In the following spring Brigadier General Scott of Kentucky, headed an expedition of 800 men against the Indian towns on the Wabash River. He was successful in destroying them and in killing many of the inhabitants. He lost but few men from his own command. Later in the summer, a similar expedition was made under Brigadier General Wilkinson, and was equally successful.

St. Clair's Expedition. The most disastrous expedition made during the series of Indian campaigns was that under Governor St. Clair. The army, the largest yet assembled on the frontier, left Fort Washington early in September, 1791. As it proceeded northward, several forts were erected and garrisoned. The main body of the army, numbering 1,400 men, moved on to the head waters of the Wabash River, reaching there early in November. The Indians had kept close watch on the movements of the army, and at this time were within a few miles of it, waiting a chance to make an attack with a large force under the command of Little Turtle, Blue Jacket, and other famous Indian chiefs. On the third of

November St. Clair's army encamped, throwing up earthworks and taking all precautions for a possible attack. The next morning the attack came—unexpectedly, and just at daylight. The militia were lying about the outer edge of the camp, and had to bear the brunt of the attack. They fled into the center of the camp and so impeded the work of the regular soldiers that they could do but little real fighting. The whole army soon lost all semblance of order and discipline, and began a retreat that was little more than a disorderly flight. The Indians followed them, killing the stragglers, and harassing the entire force. The loss in this disastrous engagement was heavy. Six hundred thirty-two men were killed, two hundred sixty-four wounded, and in addition over one hundred women, who were following the fortunes of their husbands, met with most horrible deaths at the hands of the savages. St. Clair's defeat was indeed a blow to the Northwest. The tide of immigration was checked, not to begin again until after Wayne's defeat of the Indians.

Anthony Wayne. St. Clair, though he was in no way to blame for the disaster with which his army met, resigned his office of Major General, and Anthony Wayne, a Pennsylvanian who had distinguished himself in the Revolutionary War, was appointed to fill the position. From the early part of the year 1792 until the middle of August, 1793, Wayne was busy recruiting an army. His headquarters were at Pittsburg, and his recruits came largely from the eastern states. These men were in the main ignorant of war and of military discipline. Wayne had no small task before him in training them, and making them fit for the campaign he had planned. He set about his task with tact and skill, and the army soon began to assume the proper character. He drilled the men in all the regular military tactics and exercises, and, in addition, taught them

those special maneuvers necessary to the successful Indian fighter. The riflemen sought to excel in marksmanship, and the General offered special privileges to those who became expert marksmen. By the middle of the summer of 1793, Wayne's forces, now numbering 3,630 men, had been moved down the river and had established a camp near Fort Washington. The Government was still making overtures of peace to the Indians, though the uselessness of trying to treat with them had long ago become apparent. Frightened by the preparations for war, and weakened by the recent expeditions into their country, the Wabash and Illinois tribes finally made treaties which were pretty faithfully kept. The greater number of the tribes refused the government's offers of peace, and it became evident that war was the only means by which the safety of the frontier might be assured.

Wayne Continues His Preparations. During the fall of 1793, Wayne strengthened his position by the erection of several forts, and by the continuous improvement of his little army. He was hampered by the illness of many of his men, but he kept bravely at work preparing for the conflict he knew would come in the spring or summer of the following year. The Indians were quite as active. Their one great hope lay in securing British aid in the war, in the way of guns, ammunition, and other supplies.

Hostilities Begin. The hostilities began the latter part of June, 1794, with a skirmish which took place under the very walls of Fort Recovery, in the western part of Ohio. The number of Indians is not known, but was considerable, while the Americans numbered only a hundred and forty.

Final Engagement. About a month later, Wayne's army was reënforced by 1,600 mounted volunteers from Kentucky, and the march on the Indian towns was begun.

On the 8th of August the army reached the place where the Maumee and Auglaise Rivers join, and took possession of that important post. On the 20th a victory was gained over the Indian forces at a point farther up the Maumee, where the British had a post and garrison. The Indians were strengthened by a considerable number of British soldiers and volunteers from Detroit and Canada. The enemy had more than 2,000 men, and when attacked were located in a thick wood. The attack was made with great bravery by a detachment of Wayne's forces which numbered only 900 men, and, "in the course of an hour," to use Wayne's words, "the enemy were driven more than two miles through the thick woods." The fight terminated under the guns of the British fort, the men of the garrison being compelled to watch as passive spectators the defeat of the army they had encouraged and given aid. For three days Wayne's victorious army encamped before the British fort, which existed, contrary to treaty, on American soil. The British were helpless, because their government and that of the United States were at peace. Having no orders to interfere, realizing too the delicacy of their own position, the garrison had to sit by and watch the destruction of the Indian villages and of the houses and property of Colonel McKee, the British Indian Agent, and the man who for several years had been the chief agitator against the Americans.

Treaty with the British. War between America and Great Britain was prevented at this time by the prudence and firmness of Washington and the diplomatic skill of John Jay, who was sent as envoy to the court of St. James. A treaty was concluded by which the British agreed to withdraw all troops and garrisons from places within the boundary lines of the United States, as they had been determined by the treaty of 1783.

Wayne Arranges for a Treaty with the Indians. The next step was to secure a treaty of peace with the Indians, who were now quite willing to make terms. During the winter of 1794–5, General Wayne was visited at his headquarters at Fort Wayne, on the site of the present Indiana city of that name, by representatives of the different tribes, who signed preliminary articles of peace and agreed to meet Wayne at Greenville, Ohio, for a final treaty early in the coming summer.

Treaty of Greenville. In the month of June, 1795, the Indians from the various tribes began to arrive at Greenville. The "pow-wow" continued from the 16th of June to the 10th day of August. Many speeches were made on both sides, the red men arguing for their right to the old hunting grounds, and the whites seeking to persuade them to give up the greater part of their lands. Still feeling the effects of the defeat in the recent campaign, and learning that the English would no longer aid them, the Indians at last made such cessions as Wayne demanded. "These comprised all of Ohio east of the Cuyahoga River and south of a line drawn slightly north of east from Loramie's Store, near the head of the Big Miami; military reservations at fourteen of the most important points in the Indian Country—those in Indiana being Fort Wayne, the Little River portage, and the old Wea towns near Lafayette; a tract six miles deep along the Detroit, including the French settlements; Clark's grant of 150,000 acres at the falls of the Ohio; Fort Massac, Michilimacinac, Vincennes, and all other places in possession of the French people and other white settlers among them of which the Indian title had been extinguished; and the southeastern corner of Indiana, lying east of a line drawn from Fort Recovery to the mouth of the Kentucky River." This treaty ceded all the lands which the United States then desired, and founded a peace that lasted sixteen years.

SOURCES OF SETTLERS IN THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY

CHAPTER VIII

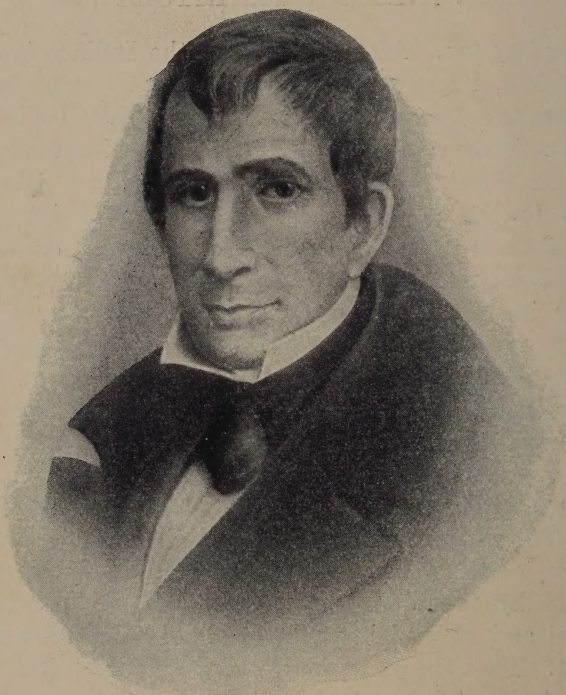
INDIANA TERRITORY

Immigration. After peace with the Indians had been established, immigrants at once began to come in large numbers to settle in the fertile lands of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. They came largely from the New England states, but the South contributed a share. Since Ohio was nearer to the East, the larger number of immigrants stopped there. The Indiana settlements were made along the Ohio River in Clark's grant, and near Vincennes. Vincennes itself received quite a number of new citizens, though the New England Puritans did not mix very well with the French Catholics who had settled the village.

Trading. Trading with the Indians was one of the most profitable enterprises in which the early settlers could engage. Posts were established at Fort Wayne, Vincennes, and other points on the Wabash and its tributaries. The whites exchanged guns, cloth, trinkets and similar commodities with the Indians for the skins of the animals trapped by them. The furs obtained were dried, compressed and secured in packs of about a hundred pounds weight. Then the packs were loaded on a boat and started for Detroit. The route followed was along the Wabash and the Little River to the portage near Fort Wayne. There the traders carried their packs across the portage to the head of the River Maumee, placed them in boats again and continued the journey to Detroit. At this place the furs were exchanged for various articles, such as blankets, guns, knives, powder, bullets and ornaments. These

things the traders carried back to their posts to barter for more furs.

Indiana Territory. In May, 1800, Congress passed a law establishing the Indiana Territory. This included the present states of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin,



WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON
(From a portrait owned by the Vincennes University)

and part of Minnesota. The total population was slightly over five thousand. The capital was fixed at Vincennes. William Henry Harrison, a Virginian by birth, was appointed Governor of the new Territory, and John Gib-

son was appointed Secretary. Three territorial judges were also appointed.

Territorial Government. In July, Secretary Gibson arrived at Vincennes and made appointments of officers and provided for the enforcement of the laws. The Governor did not reach Vincennes until the following January. When he did arrive he at once began the organizing the new government. To that end he called a meeting of the judges for the purpose of passing laws. They met on January 12, 1801, and continued their sessions for about two weeks, during which time they adopted seven laws and three resolutions. On March 3, the territorial judges opened the first general court of Indiana, and formed the first grand jury.

Interests from 1800 to 1810. "Between the years 1800 and 1810, the principal subjects which attracted the attention of the people in Indiana territory were land speculations, the adjustment of land titles, the question of negro slavery, the purchase of Indian lands by treaties, the organization of the territorial legislature, the extension of the right of suffrage, the division of the Indiana territory, the movements of Aaron Burr, and the hostile views and proceedings of the Shawnee chief, Tecumseh, and his brother the Prophet."* Let us take up such of these points as interest us, and investigate them more fully. The matter of slavery is so important that we will not consider it here, but give an entire chapter to it later.

Land Titles. The titles to land claimed by the older settlers were usually very ill-founded. The French held their lands by virtue of Indian grants, grants from the former governments, and the right which came from long and undisturbed possession. As a rule the French had no deeds, nor any other papers to prove their claims. Con-

* NOTE.—Dillon's History of Indiana, Edition of 1859, p. 409.

gress, however, was inclined to deal very leniently with the French settlers, and so various resolutions were passed confirming their claims. Under the government of the Northwest Territory, St. Clair did his best to give all the claimants justice. After Indiana Territory was formed, Governor Harrison had many similar difficulties to settle. Finally, in the year 1804, Congress passed an act by which the registers and receivers of the land offices at Vincennes, Kaskaskia, and Detroit were formed into three separate boards of commissioners for the examination of claims and titles to lands within their own districts. Many of the claims these boards examined were found to be worthless or fraudulent. Certain unprincipled persons sought to take advantage of the lack of records to gain lands to which they had no right. After the establishment of the boards this ceased, for the practice of such frauds was no longer safe.

Purchase of Indian Lands. Governor Harrison was very active in acquiring more land from the Indian tribes for the United States government. Between the years 1802 and 1805 he secured several very large districts within the boundaries of the territory. In September, 1802, a treaty was made with some of the head men of the Miami confederacy, by which a large tract near Vincennes was secured. Other treaties followed, and by the close of the year 1805 Governor Harrison had secured title to about 46,000 square miles of land.

The First Legislature. Congress had provided that as soon as the population of Indiana Territory was sufficient, an election might be held for the purpose of choosing representatives for a territorial legislature. This would make the territory self-governing, and pass it into the so-called *second grade.* Governor Harrison opposed the step, chiefly because he feared it would give the advo-

FIRST CAPITOL OF INDIANA, VINCENNES

cates of slavery an opportunity to force slavery on the territory. At length he yielded, and an election was held. The first general assembly of the Indiana Territory met at Vincennes, on the 29th of July, 1805. Governor Harrison, in his message, recommended the passage of laws: (1) To prevent the sale of intoxicating liquors to the Indians; (2) To establish a better system of courts; (3) To provide for the improvement of the militia; (4) To provide for the punishment of horse stealing; (5) To provide ways and means of raising a revenue. The assembly had the authority to elect a delegate to Congress, and since the territory was anxious to have a representative in the national legislative body, it was not slow to take advantage of this power. Benjamin Parke was elected to this position, and, though he had no vote in Congress, his word regarding affairs in the territory greatly influenced the votes of others.

Division of Indiana Territory. The territory of Michigan was established on the 11th of January, 1805. This territory included about the same region as goes to make up the present state. The division of the remainder of Indiana Territory into two parts was the result of petitions to Congress from the people living within its bounds. They urged that the extent of the region and the dangers and expense of travel for those compelled to attend court, made it desirable to have the territory divided into two smaller sections. So, on February 3, 1809, Congress passed an act declaring that after March 1, 1809, all that part of Indiana Territory lying "west of the Wabash River, and a direct line drawn from the said Wabash River and Vincennes due north to the territorial line between the United States and Canada" should constitute a separate territory, and be called Illinois. The total population of Indiana Territory at this time was about

28,000, and of this number 11,000 lived in the new territory of Illinois.

Aaron Burr. The plans of Aaron Burr are of interest to the people of Indiana because, had they proven successful, they would have changed the entire history of the state and of the nation. Burr, who in 1801, had tied with Jefferson in the number of votes for the Presidency, lost in the final decision, and the office went to Jefferson. The decision was largely due to the influence of Alexander Hamilton, and Burr, determined to be avenged on Hamilton, challenged him to a duel. Hamilton reluctantly accepted, and in the duel was killed. Burr fled the country, and while in hiding formed a plan to raise a large military force, invade Mexico, conquer the Spaniards, who possessed the country, and then gain the support of the southern states and western territories for the establishment of a separate government. The plan failed. Burr was arrested, but since nothing could be proven against him, he was set at liberty. He went abroad, but returned to New York at last to die a broken-hearted old man.

Indianians Connected with Burr. In the Indiana Territory were many men who were secretly in communication with Burr at the time his plans were forming. Several succeeded in keeping their connection with Burr a secret, but some of the most influential men of the territory were implicated, and their connection with the affair made public. Strange to say, none of these men suffered very much in public opinion or politically.

Tecumseh and the Prophet. Between 1805 and 1810, the Indians made many complaints to Governor Harrison and other officials of their treatment by whites who sought to defraud them of their lands. Tecumseh, the famous Shawnee warrior, and his brother, the Prophet, were living in an Indian village on the west fork of White

HARRISON MANSION, VINCENNES
(First building of note erected in the Northwest Territory)

River, within the present boundaries of Delaware County. The Prophet took it upon himself to make speeches against the white men, and against such of the Indians as were disposed to be friendly to the whites. Worst of all, the Prophet began to talk witchcraft, and accused some of the Indians of his village of practicing it. Several were burned at the stake. This excitement died down, and, early in 1806, the two brothers moved to Greenville, in Ohio, where they began gathering about them all the dissatisfied Indians of the various western tribes. In 1808 they moved to a point on the banks of the Wabash River near the mouth of the Tippecanoe River. The Prophet began having dealings with some of the British Indian agents, who were anxious to organize the Northwest tribes and use them as allies in case of war with the United States. The Prophet opposed further treaties with the Americans, and intimated that if settlements were attempted on certain of the lands already ceded by the Indians at the treaty of Greenville, he and Tecumseh would go on the war path against the settlers. Various conferences were held with the Prophet, but to no avail. In 1810 a detachment of troops was moved to Vincennes. The British, meanwhile, became very active in their overtures of friendship to the Indians, for it was evident that war was soon to be declared between their government and that of the United States. Tecumseh made a visit to Vincennes in the summer of 1811, and though he professed friendship, his real hostility could not be concealed.

Tecumseh's Speech and Actions. The character of the great Indian is well brought out in his speeches and actions, while in attendance at the various daily councils with Governor Harrison. Upon one occasion he said:—

"I am a warrior, I am the head of them all, and all the warriors will meet together in two or three moons from

this, then will I call for those chiefs who sold you the land and shall know what to do with them. I will take no presents from you. By taking goods from you, you will hereafter say that with them you purchased another piece of land."

At another time when he was told that the President would not acknowledge his claims, he said:—

"Well, as the Great Chief is to determine the matter, I hope the Great Spirit will put sense enough in his head to induce him to direct you to give up this land. It is true he is far off and will not be injured by this war; he may sit still and drink his wine while you and I fight it out."

At the close of one of his speeches, Governor Harrison's aid pointed to a chair and said to Tecumseh, "Your father requests you to take a seat by his side." The reply was, "My father! the sun is my father, and the earth is my mother; on her bosom I will repose." The Great Chief then seated himself on the bare ground.

CHAPTER IX

BATTLE OF TIPPECANOE. THE WAR OF 1812

Harrison Marches Against the Prophet's Town. The Indians under Tecumseh and the Prophet, at the Prophet's town on the Wabash, near the present city of Lafayette, became a real menace to the safety of Indiana Territory. As early as the middle of July, 1811, the Secretary of War had authorized Governor Harrison to call out the militia and attack the Prophet's town if necessity demanded. A regiment of regular troops under the command of Colonel J. P. Boyd was also at Harrison's disposal. Convinced that these Indians must be subdued if the territory was to have peace, Harrison called out the militia and started northward on September 26th, 1811. Early in October they encamped near the site of the present city of Terre Haute, and set about the erection of a fort. This work required three weeks, and in the meantime Harrison was engaged in an unsuccessful attempt to make a treaty with the Prophet and his brother. The fort was completed on the 28th of October, and at the unanimous request of the soldiers, it was named Fort Harrison. Leaving a small garrison at the new fort, the army continued its way toward the Prophet's town. The force amounted to 910 men, 250 of them regulars, and the remainder militia.

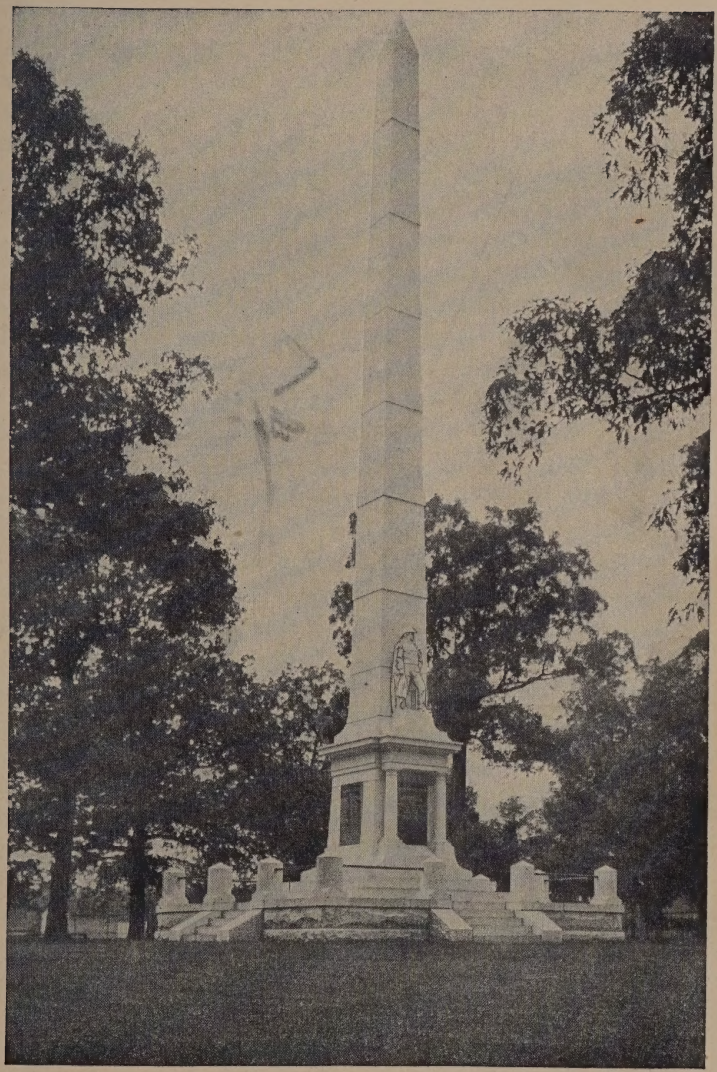
Arrival at the Prophet's Town. As the army approached the encampment several small bodies of Indians were seen, but these kept well out of the way, and seemed merely to be spying, and not desirous of a fight. On

the 6th of November the army came in sight of the Prophet's town, and when about a mile and a half from the village halted, and sent forward an interpreter to request a conference with the Prophet. The Indians attempted to do harm to the interpreter and his party, so Governor Harrison recalled them, and moved forward with the entire army. When near the village, an old chief appeared and informed the Governor that two Indians had been sent to meet him some days ago with a message from the Prophet saying that the Indians would yield to the demands made by the whites. Since these Indians and their message had never arrived, the Governor was suspicious of treachery, and believed an effort was being made by the Prophet to gain time. The army moved on to the northwest a short distance, where a place suitable for camp was found. It was a high piece of ground, heavily wooded, and having a small stream running along one side.

The Army Encamps. The army encamped in order of battle. A hollow square was formed, with the commander and a body of reserve troops in the center. The men lay down about the camp fires with all their clothing on, and fully equipped with arms and ammunition. Guards were stationed about the camp to give warning in case of an attack.

The Attack. Many of the private soldiers seem to have felt confident of an attack, and some of them slept lightly on acount of their fears. The officers, however, do not seem to have expected the attack that night. But the Indians had counted on just that thing, and hoped to take the Americans by surprise. The attack was made about two hours before sunrise, "so suddenly," says Governor Harrison, "that the Indians were in the camp before many of the men could get out of their tents."

The Battle of Tippecanoe. Governor Harrison was up, and was just going to give the signal to call out the men



TIPPECANOE MONUMENT

for early parade when the attack commenced. A single shot rang out, and then came the yells of the savages. The guards fled into camp with the Indians closely pursuing them. But in spite of the suddenness of the attack, the soldiers behaved splendidly, hurrying to their stations and meeting the enemy with courage and bravery. The danger was increased by the fact that it was still dark, and the men could scarcely tell the Indians from their own comrades. So heavy was the fire at the angle of the formation first attacked, that the soldiers defending that quarter were nearly all shot down and either killed or severely wounded. The reserve companies were at once rushed in to fill their places, in order that the lines might be kept entire, and to prevent the Indians from rushing into the camp. When daylight came, several charges were made on the enemy, driving them off with great loss, but at the expense of many lives among the Americans. The Indians retired to their village where they hastily gathered together their women and children, and fled.

The Prophet. During the battle, the Prophet stood on a huge rock near the battle ground chanting and praying, and offering up petitions to the "Great Spirit" to make his people victorious. We wonder how he must have felt when the fleeing Indians passed his rock, and he realized that the day was lost. The defeat seems to have broken his spirit, for though he later joined the British at Detroit, he was never again the menace to the Americans that he had been in times past. His brother, Tecumseh, did not arrive in time for the battle, but joined the Indians later in their flight.

The American Loss. The loss of the army under Governor Harrison amounted to thirty-seven killed in the battle, and one hundred and fifty-one wounded, twenty-five of whom afterward died of their wounds. The loss

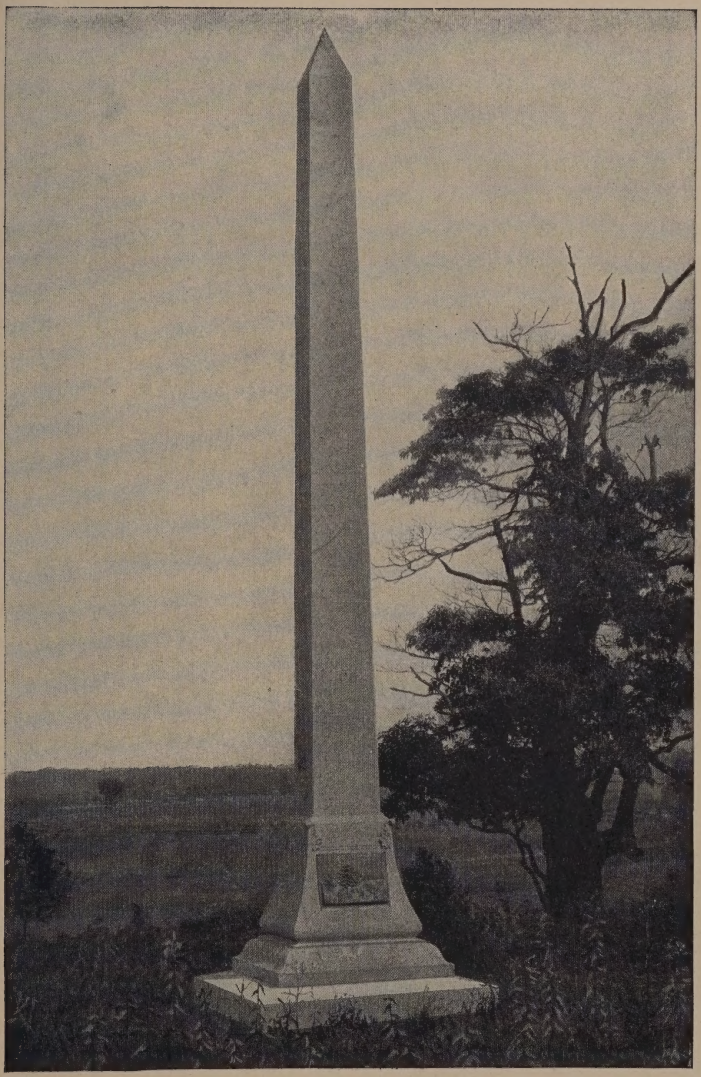
was heavier than the number indicated, for the men who composed the army were the very pick of the new territory. Among those who were killed were many who had been prominent in the politics and government of the new Territory, and who came from the best of the pioneer families. This famous and costly battle occurred November 7, 1811.

Indian Council. In the spring of 1812, the Indian tribes held a council at an Indian village on the Mississinewa River, to determine how they should stand in the coming war between Great Britain and the United States. The sentiment of most of the Indians was that they should remain neutral. Tecumseh and the Prophet both favored the British and later joined them.

Preparation. Meanwhile, Governor Harrison was so confident of war with Great Britain that he began erecting forts and block-houses, strengthening the garrisons, and preparing the militia for war.

War Declared. On the 18th of June, 1812, the United States declared war on Great Britain. Governor Harrison at once visited Kentucky and secured the promise of the Governor of that state to send volunteers in case they were needed for the frontier. In the next few weeks the American cause in the Northwest suffered heavily. July 17th, the fort on Mackinac Island was captured and the occupants massacred. On the 9th of August, the garrison of Fort Dearborn was defeated by a superior Indian force while on their way to the fort at Detroit. Detroit was surrendered August 16, by the commandant, Captain Helm, without a gun being fired.

The Pigeon Roost Massacre. The Indians gained confidence from the British and Indian victories, and many who had intended to remain neutral became hostile to the Americans. They made an unsuccessful attack on Fort



PIGEON ROOST MONUMENT

Harrison. They were more successful in an attack on an outlying settlement in what is now Scott County. This place was known as Pigeon Roost Settlement, and was five or six miles from any other settled portion of the county. September 3, 1912, two men who were hunting in the woods were attacked by Indians and killed. Just as darkness was coming on, that same evening, the Indians made an attack on the settlement and killed twenty-four people. A few escaped to a block-house some miles away. The next day a body of armed and mounted men took up the trail of the Indians, but were unable to overtake them. The Pigeon Roost massacre caused much excitement and alarm on the frontier, and the settlers lived in constant dread until the close of the war in 1814.

Protection of the Settlements. The settlements in Indiana Territory at once erected block-houses and stockades, for protection against the Indians and British. The block-houses were of logs and were two stories high, the upper story projecting over the lower, and having loop holes in the floor of the projection to enable those inside to shoot down on the attacking force. The walls of both stories also contained loop holes. Often the block-house stood alone, but sometimes it would be surrounded by a stockade made of split logs, planted firmly in the ground, and standing close together.

Attack on Fort Harrison. On the night of the 4th of September, 1812, a large body of Indians attacked Fort Harrison, which was then under the command of Captain Zachary Taylor, later President of the United States. The Indians set fire to one of the block-houses standing at an angle of the stockade, and the flames so terrified the soldiers that the whole garrison would have been lost but for the presence of mind of the commander. His plight was indeed desperate, for many of his men were sick, and the

attacking force numbered several hundred. Taylor succeeded in preventing the spread of the fire, and erected a temporary barricade in place of the block-house. He held off the Indians until morning, when they retired. His loss was three men killed and two wounded. The defense of the fort is one of the bravest on record.

Movements of General Harrison. In September, General Harrison was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Northwestern army, which at the time numbered about ten thousand men. The Secretary of War instructed him

A BLOCKHOUSE

to first take all necessary steps for the protection of the frontier, and then to make all possible efforts to recapture Detroit and invade Canada as far as the strength of his force would permit. Harrison first sent out several expeditions against the hostile Indians, and in the meantime sought to gather sufficient stores at the Rapids of the Maumee to make possible his march on Detroit. Winter came on and

the soldiers suffered from lack of clothing to keep them warm. The transportation of provisions through the snow became very difficult. Harrison saw that it would be impossible to attack Detroit before warm weather came.

Mississinewa Expedition. Early in December, General Harrison sent Lieutenant Colonel Campbell to attack the villages of hostile Indians on the Mississinewa River, in Miami County. He succeeded in destroying several of the villages, and was victorious over the Indians in the one battle which was fought on the expedition. His force numbered about 600 mounted riflemen.

Detroit Taken. In September, 1813, Harrison reached Detroit, and found that the British had fled, first setting fire to many of the buildings and stores. He took possession of the fort and pursued the retreating British army. At Malden, the battle of the Thames occured on October 6th. The Americans, led by General Harrison and General Shelby, Governor of Kentucky, won a complete victory over the British. In this battle Tecumseh was killed, and the power of the Indian confederacy broken.

Indian Affairs. The miserable remnants of the Indian tribes came to General Harrison after the battle and sued for peace. We find no further instances in Indiana of organized Indian hostility. A few years later the Indians signed a treaty with the Government of the United States by which they gave up their claims to lands in Indiana, and agreed to move west of the Mississippi. Their final removal occurred in 1838.

Peace Declared. A treaty of peace was signed with Great Britain, December 24, 1814, and ratified by our government, February 17, 1815.

CHAPTER X

SLAVERY IN INDIANA

The French and Slavery. The early French settlers in the Northwest Territory carried on most of their trade with Canada to the northeast, and with Louisiana and the West Indies to the south. As slavery was recognized by the home government and practiced by the other colonies, particularly those in the South, the settlers in the Northwest Territory were not slow to adopt it. Their remoteness from slave marts made it impracticable to bring in large numbers of slaves, but they secured some directly from Louisiana and the West Indies. Others they secured from the Indians, who had captured them from slave-holding settlers in the older colonies. In addition, many Pawnee Indians were captured by other tribes and sold into slavery. They were known as Panis by the French, the term Pani being the French corruption of Pawnee. As early as 1750, there were three hundred negro and sixty Pani slaves in five Illinois settlements.

The English and Slavery. Just how many slaves were owned by the citizens of Vincennes and other settlements in Indiana at the time the Territory passed into the hands of the English is not known. It is certain, however, that there was a considerable number. The treaty of 1763 made special provision for the protection of slave property, and as England was a slave-holding nation, the practice was not interfered with during the English ownership of the Northwest.

American Possession and Slavery. When Indiana was captured by George Rogers Clark, the rule of Virginia was

extended over it, and since Virginia was a slave-holding state, there was no interference with the custom in the newly acquired territory. When the states that had claims upon the region north of the Ohio ceded their rights to the general government, conditions remained the same.

Attitude of Early Settlers. The first settlers to come into Indiana and other parts of the Northwest Territory, after its capture and possession by the Americans, were mainly from Virginia, the Carolinas and Kentucky. They came from states where slavery was legal and recognized as a profitable institution. To them it seemed wholly desirable that slavery be continued; in fact, they could not believe the new territory would ever prosper without the introduction of slaves. It is true that among the early English-speaking settlers there were some who came into the new country to get away from the presence of slavery in the older settlements, but in these early days the anti-slavery people were few.

Reference to Slavery in Treaties. In the treaty of 1783, made at the close of the Revolutionary War, there were no specific statements which guaranteed to the citizens of the Northwest Territory property rights in their slaves. No one, however, doubted that these rights were to be fully protected, because slavery was legally practiced in each of the thirteen states of the new nation. In Jay's treaty of 1794, by which England abandoned her occupation of the northwestern forts, specific provision was made for the protection of slave property held by the former British subjects.

When Virginia ceded her claims to the general government, she provided "that the French and Canadian inhabitants . . . who have professed themselves citizens of Virginia, shall have their possessions and titles

confirmed to them, and be protected in the enjoyment of their rights and liberties." This was understood to cover possessions and titles in human beings.

Recognition of Slavery by the Government. In various measures passed or discussed by Congress previous to 1787, the expressions "free males" and "free male inhabitants" occur frequently. In the great Ordinance of 1787, the expression "free male inhabitants" is found. These things indicate that the Federal Government fully recognized the existence of slavery in the Northwest Territory.

The Ordinance of 1787. The following is the Sixth Article of the Ordinance of 1787—probably the most important portion of that important document:—

"Art. 6. There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted; provided, always, that any person escaping into the same, from whom labor or service is lawfully claimed in any one of the original States, such fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed and conveyed to the person claiming his or her labor or service as aforesaid."

This states with apparent clearness, that slavery and involuntary servitude shall forever be prohibited in the Northwest Territory, but it did not have the effect of immediately eliminating this institution. Slavery continued to exist for some years after the passage of this act. It is true, that after the Ordinance of 1787 went into effect, slaves could not be legally brought into Indiana or any other part of the Northwest Territory. But, legally or not, quite a number of slaves were brought in and held by their masters. Later, various ways were found to evade the law, so that although a large number of slaves was never found in Indiana settlements, a few were held by unscrupulous persons until after the territory became a state.

Territorial Government and Slavery. The territorial government of Indiana made no serious attempt to interfere with the ownership of slaves. Many of the officials were from Virginia, and their training and experience made them ardent supporters of the institution of slavery. The terms of the Ordinance of 1787 were evaded by the passage of laws of indenture. These laws provided that slaves could be brought into the state and held for sixty days, and then removed from the state without loss of property interest. It was possible, however, during the sixty days of unqualified slavery, for the slave to enter into an agreement with his master by which he was to serve him for a number of years, usually a long period. The law also affected the children of those indentured. Male children were held until they reached the age of thirty, and female children until they were twenty-eight. The conditions under the indenture laws were about as bad as those of unqualified slavery.

Petitions to Congress. Before the passage of the indenture law by the first territorial legislature, several petitions were presented to Congress by citizens of Indiana Territory, praying that the Sixth Article of the Ordinance might be set aside, so that slavery could be legalized. In 1802, Governor Harrison called a convention to consider the expediency of the admission of slavery into the territory. This convention assembled on December 20, 1802, and on December 28 they agreed upon their memorial to Congress. This document explains the calling of the convention, and then proceeds to the slavery question as follows: "The Sixth Article of Compact between the United States and the people of the Territory, which declares there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in it, has prevented the Country from populating, and been the Reason of driving many valuable Citizens possessing Slaves to the

Spanish side of the Mississippi, most of whom but for the prohibition contained in the Ordinance would have settled in this Territory, and the consequences of keeping that prohibition in force will be that of obliging the numerous Class of Citizens disposed to emigrate to seek an Asylum in that country where they can be permitted to enjoy their property. Your memorialists, however, and the people they represent, do not wish for a repeal of the article entirely, but that it may be suspended for the Term of Ten Years and then to be again in force, but that slaves brought into the Territory during the Continuance of this Suspension, and their progeny, may be considered and continued in the same state of Servitude, as if they remained in those parts of the United States where Slavery is permitted and from whence they may have removed." There is no gradual emancipation scheme in this petition, but the thing asked is slavery, absolute and unending. The petition of 1803 asked that the Sixth Article of the Ordinance be suspended for a period of ten years. The petition of 1805 prayed for the right of citizens of any state to carry their slaves unmolested anywhere within the confines of the United States. By this petition, the people of Indiana hoped to get an act through making it legal for the citizens of other states to bring their slaves with them into the new territory. The last petition, to Congress, a lengthy and ingenious appeal for the toleration of slavery in the Indiana Territory, was sent in the year 1807. Like the other petitions of similar nature, it did not meet with favorable action.

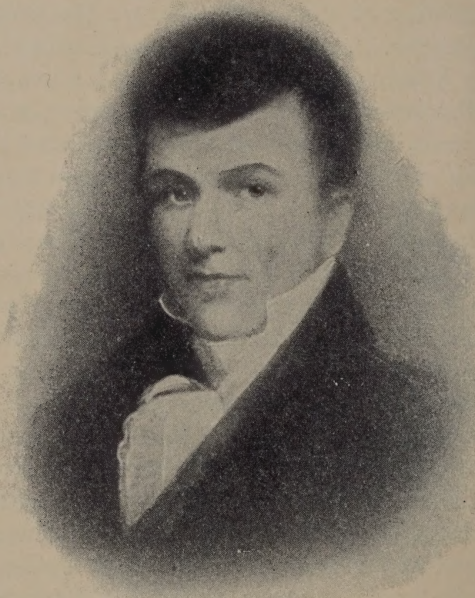
Governor Harrison's Attitude on Slavery. The attitude of Governor Harrison on slavery was never very definite on one side or the other. It seems that, personally, he was a very strong opponent, but that he never let his personal feelings color his political actions to any

great extent. It is certain that he believed in the theory of a constitutional right of the Southern people to carry their slaves wherever they went. In one campaign, making answer to the charge of being a pro-slavery man, he said: "I am accused of being friendly to slavery. From my earliest youth to the present moment I have been the ardent friend of human liberty. At the age of eighteen I became a member of an Abolition Society established at Richmond, Virginia, the object of which was to ameliorate the condition of slaves and procure their freedom by every legal means. . . . The obligations which I then came under I have faithfully performed. I have been the means of liberating many slaves, but never placed one in bondage." In a later campaign, when Harrison was accused of abolitionist tendencies, his political friends succeeded in breaking down the force of this preceding statement. Harrison was too tactful a politician to ever place himself on one side or the other of such a disputed question. His personal feelings were undoubtedly against slavery, and when he felt politics permitted, he did what he could against the institution.

Anti-Slavery Sentiment in Indiana. Indiana Territory was in a peculiar situation. The slave-holders who emigrated from the older states could not bring their slaves with them, and hence went elsewhere to settle. The emigrants from the northeastern states, who were in the main opposed to slavery, were distrustful of the territory because of its known slavery sentiments, and so stopped in Ohio. The population grew slowly, but the growth was largely anti-slavery people, for, while the slave-holders could not come in and bring their slaves, the anti-slavery people could settle in the territory, if they were willing to take the risk. The repeated attempts of the believers in slavery to legalize the institution finally aroused its oppon-

ents. A considerable number of the settlers from the South had come from their homes because of a dislike for slavery, and they formed staunch supporters for the northern anti-slavery men. Within the state were several communities of Quakers whose religion was directly opposed to the holding of human beings in bondage.

Campaign of Randolph and Jennings. When, in 1809, the pro-slavery people put up as their candidate for dele-



JONATHAN JENNINGS

gate to Congress, Thomas Randolph, the anti-slavery people brought out as his opponent Jonathan Jennings, a young lawyer of Clark County. Jennings was a man of unusual personality, having the power to "bring all men to him,"

as one of his opponents once said. He was forceful and energetic, and inspired trust in those with whom he came in contact. Above all, he was a man of the people, and not an aristocrat as was Randolph. Jennings made a remarkable campaign. He traveled over the state on horseback and presented his cause to the voters. He was so eloquent and earnest that he won friends everywhere. Many attempts were made to cause him to withdraw from the race. He was threatened with personal violence, and efforts were made to provoke him to a duel. In spite of all these things, he continued in the race and was elected. Randolph contested the election before the House. The committee to which the contest was referred reported in favor of unseating Jennings. The House, however, refused to accept the report, and confirmed his election. Jennings was reëlected in 1811, 1813, and 1815. In all of these elections the main question at issue was slavery. Although the opponents of slavery won in four elections, the question would not down.

Constitutional Prohibition of Slavery. The final settlement did not come until 1816, when the constitution of the State was adopted. In that document this significant clause occurs:

"There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in this State, otherwise than for the punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, nor shall any indenture of any negro or mulatto, hereafter made and executed out of the bounds of this State be of any validity within the State."

Although the state constitution clearly prohibited slavery, it is a curious fact that slaves continued to be held within the State for a number of years. The census of 1820 credited Indiana with 190 slaves. So far as we know, the last sale of a slave in the State occurred in October, 1813, three

years before the adoption of the state constitution. Every vestige of slavery disappeared in 1843, by the death of the last slave held within the boundaries of the state.

The Underground Railway. It was about this same time that the "Underground Railway" became an imporant factor in the slavery controversy between North and South. The Underground Railway was not, of course, "underground" at all. Runaway slaves who reached the northern states made their way to the homes of abolitionists, who concealed them by day and carried them on to the house of some other abolitionist in the night. So successful were these opponents of slavery that they became quite bold in their operations, and organized the business of aiding escaped slaves into a system. The name originated through the remark of a slave owner who had traced an escaped slave to a certain house, only to find the fugitive gone when a search was made. Much baffled, the Southerner exclaimed "There must be an underground road leading away from this place." The name spread, and finally changed to "Underground Railway," and as such the system came to be known all over the country.

The Quakers. Indiana played an important part in the Underground Railway system. Many settlements of Friends, or Quakers, were found in the state, and, as in the the East, the Quaker city of Philadelphia was an abolitionist center, so these settlements in Indiana became local abolitionist centers, exerting a wide influence over the state.

Extent of System. We do not know at what time the organized movement to aid escaping slaves was really started, for it all had to be done with great secrecy. We do know, however, that by 1840 Indiana was covered with a network of lines of the Underground system, so well organized and managed that very few slaves who escaped to our state were ever retaken by their masters.

Levi Coffin of Newport. Old Newport, in Wayne County, the name of which has since been changed to Fountain City, was one of the important points of the system. Levi Coffin, who became one of the great abolitionist figures, and the so-called "President" of the Underground Railway, lived at Newport for many years. He came there in 1826 from North Carolina, and lived in the town until 1847, when he moved to Cincinnati to engage in the wholesale business of handling goods manufactured by free labor. At Cincinnati he became even more active in aiding escaping slaves, and it is said of him that, altogether, at Newport and Cincinnati, he aided more than three thousand slaves in their escape to Canada and freedom.

Operation of System. Three lines of the system converged at Levi Coffin's house at Newport. One was from Cincinnati, one from Madison, and one from Jeffersonville. A "train" was made up of one or more of the covered wagons used by immigrants. Since these wagons were always coming North with movers, they excited little suspicion. The blacks were concealed under straw or bedding, and were kept by day at some "station," and then carried on to another station the next night. Those who kept the stations were always ready to receive and care for fugitives. We are told that a light tap at Levi Coffin's door at any time of the night brought forth the good man to admit the escaping blacks to his house, where his wife, known as "Aunt Katie," was always ready to prepare food and beds.

Important Stations. Old Newport was the most important point of the Underground Railway in Indiana. Other important towns in the system were Evansville, Jeffersonville, Salem, Columbus, Greensburg, Bloomingdale, Richmond, Madison, LaFayette, and Indianapolis.

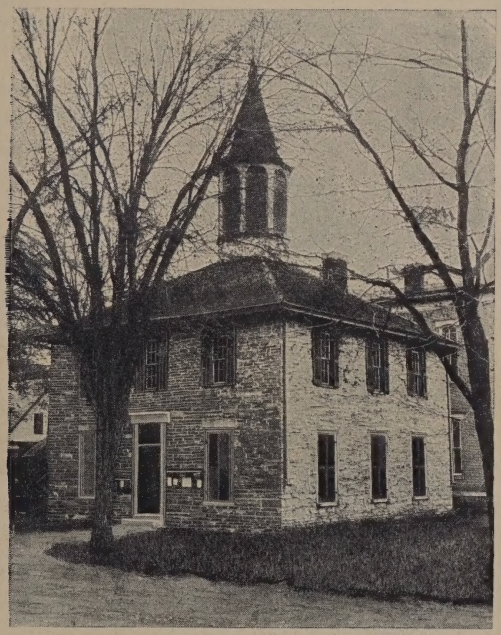
CHAPTER XI

INDIANA BECOMES A STATE

Legislature of 1813. During the first year of the war of 1812 the Territorial legislature held no meeting, but the year following General Gibson, who was acting Governor in the absence of Governor Harrison, called the law makers together for what proved a very important session. Thirty-two laws were enacted dealing with various questions of vital importance to the settlers. The most important of these laws concerned the organization of counties and the establishment of county seats, the fixing of the time for court sessions, the building of new roads and the improvement of old ones.

Capital Changed to Corydon. Probably the most important act of the Territorial legislature of 1813, was the enactment of a law changing the capital of the Territory from Vincennes to Corydon. Vincennes, in the southwest corner of the Territory, was a great distance from some of the outlying districts, while Corydon was nearer the center of territorial population and could be more easily reached. Vincennes was quite a populous center and was the home of a great many of the public men of the Territory. These men were off fighting for their country, and had no say in the matter, while the delegates from the outlying counties were strong in their arguments for the removal of the capital. So Corydon became the capital city—or rather the capital village—but held that distinction only twelve years, for in 1825 Indianapolis became the permanent capital of the state.

State House at Corydon. A state house was built at Corydon, being completed in 1815. It is still standing, and since the people of Corydon take a pride in its preservation, it will doubtless continue to stand for many years to come. It was built of stone quarried from the nearby



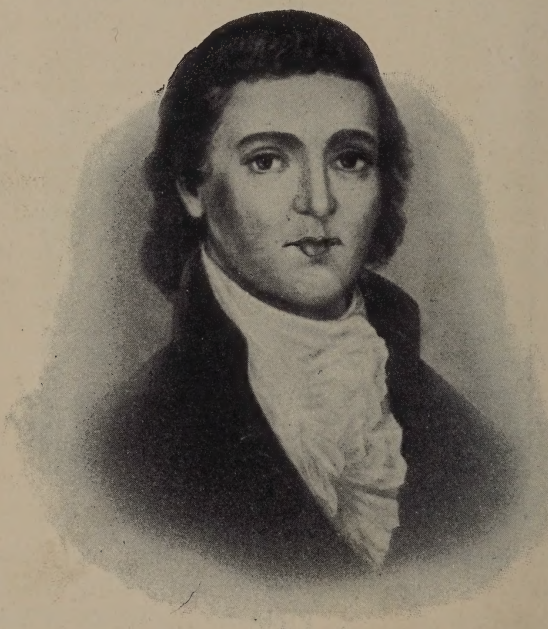
OLD STATE CAPITOL, CORYDON

hills, and is a small, two-story structure, very insignificant when compared with the great building which now serves the same purpose. Probably the whole of this first state house could be set up in one of the main corridors of the present building.

But though very small and plain, the little building at Corydon saw some great days, and its walls echoed some

great debates and speeches. Its simple, bare interior would not now be even sufficient for the offices of one of the state departments, and certainly would be too small for a legislative session, but in those days, the counties were few and the number of delegates correspondingly small. But the problems that confronted them were big problems, and they met them in a simple, straightforward way that gave to our state a splendid foundation.

Governor Posey. In 1813, Thomas Posey was appointed Governor of Indiana Territory. He was a Vir-



THOMAS POSEY

ginian and had served as an officer in the Revolution. At the time of his appointment he was senator from his native

state. Governor Posey reached Vincennes on the 25th of May, and began his duties at once.

Legislature Meets at Corydon. The legislature met at Corydon for the first time in December, and the new governor delivered a carefully prepared message urging certain laws which he thought would be for the good of the Territory. In charging the legislature with its importance and duty, Governor Posey said: "Much depends upon you, gentlemen, in bringing to maturity such laws as will have a tendency to render equal justice to each individual of the community, and promote the general welfare of the Territory." The Governor then went on to urge revision of the laws dealing with the courts, the passing of laws for the betterment of roads, and for the establishment of public schools.

Law Against Duelling. The session of the legislature closed on the 6th of January. Among the laws passed, one of the most interesting at the present time is the law regarding duelling. At that day duelling was a great evil in all parts of the country. If two gentlemen had a quarrel, or one fancied the other had insulted him, they settled their differences in a personal combat. The evils of such a mode of settling troubles are easily seen. The feeling against duelling was strong and had been especially so since Burr had killed Hamilton. The new law required each territorial officer to take an oath against duelling, and to promise neither to carry a challenge, nor to fight in single combat during his continuance in office.

Conditions Begin to Improve. Early in the year 1814, the condition of the settlements in Indiana Territory began to improve. General Harrison's successful movements against the British, which we have already described, and the lessened danger from hostile Indians, gave the emigrants the courage to make Indiana their goal. These

new settlers were largely from the East instead of from the South, as the greater number of the earlier settlers had been. They were sturdy, energetic and ambitious, and in every way desirable citizens for the coming state.

Legislative Business. The general assembly of 1814 established a banking system, but other than that we do not find any important legislation. The session of 1815 is the one that interests us most, for it was this legislature that secured the admission of Indiana to the Union. Strangely enough, Governor Posey did not allude in his message to the matter of the change from territorial to state government. He urged the legislature to turn its attention to the promotion of public education and the condition of roads and highways. Of the thirty-one laws passed, none were of great importance, for the attention of the legislature was concerned chiefly with the matter of gaining admission to the Union.

Petition to Congress to Become a State. The memorial sent by the legislature of Indiana Territory to Congress stated that the Territory now had more than the sixty thousand free white inhabitants required for a territory to gain admission to the Union, and asked for authority to hold an election of delegates for a convention which "shall determine, by a majority of the votes of all the members elected, whether it shall be expedient or inexpedient to go into a state government, and if it be determined expedient, the convention thus assembled shall have the power to form a constitution and frame a government." On the matter of slavery, the memorial is very clear. "And whereas the inhabitants of this territory are principally composed of emigrants from every part of the Union, and as various in their customs and sentiments as in their persons, we think it prudent, at this time, to express to the general government our attachment to the fundamental

OLD CONSTITUTIONAL ELM

principles of legislation prescribed by Congress in their ordinance for the government of this territory, particularly as respects *personal freedom* and *involuntary servitude*, and hope they may be continued as the basis of the constitution."

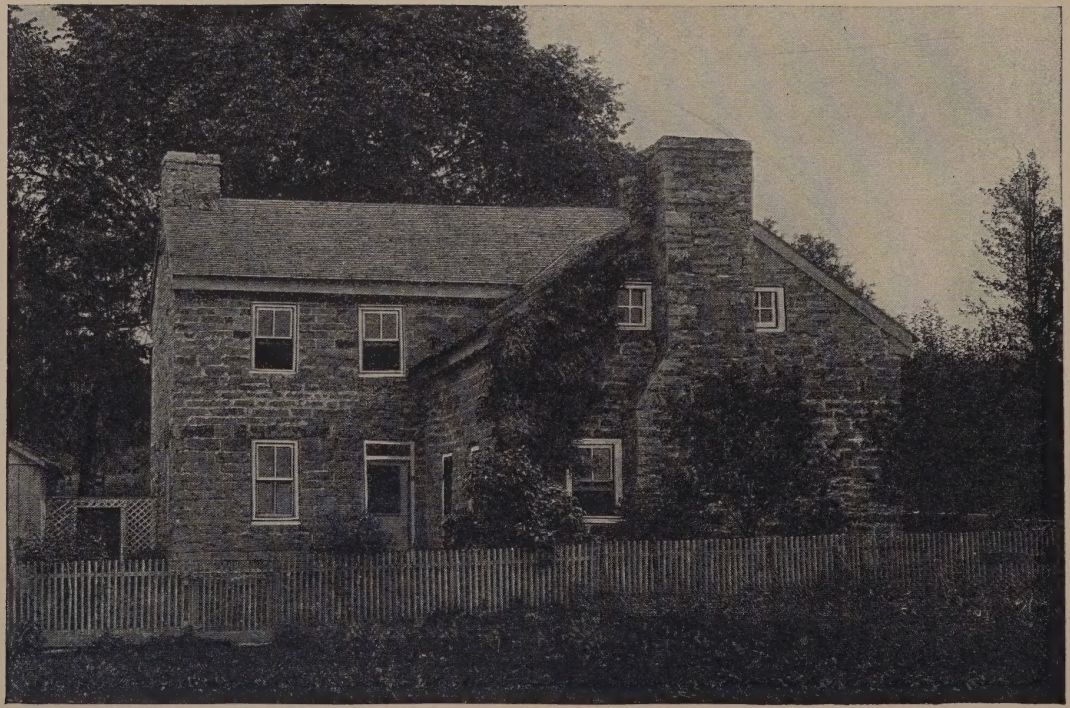
Congress Grants Permission for a Convention. Jonathan Jennings was sent as territorial delegate to Congress, and was made chairman of the committee to which the above memorial was referred. A bill was passed by Congress and approved by the President on April 19, 1816, which authorized the people of Indiana to hold a constitutional convention and to be admitted to the Union on an equal footing with the other states.

The Delegates to the Convention. An election was held and the delegates assembled in convention early in June. The meeting place was the little state house at Corydon. These delegates had traveled from all parts of the territory and they crowded the little village to its utmost capacity. They were grave, serious men, and we today, would find them a very strange looking lot, so greatly have manners and dress changed in the last hundred years. The refinements of civilized life were practically unknown to these early lawmakers. Dress was for practical purposes, and no one was much given to fashion. Clothing of homespun was the common apparel of the men, though some wore the buckskin garments of the pioneer. A few of the men from the more thickly settled counties boasted garments made by tailors, but at that time in Indiana the well-dressed man was regarded with suspicion, as too much above the common people, and as a "fine gentleman," with the airs and snobbishness of an aristocrat. Life was rough, but it was democratic, and at the core it was sound and true, for rough as they were in appearance, these early Indianians were men of common sense and honest purpose.

The Constitutional Convention. After the convention had assembled, each delegate produced his certificate of election, properly signed, and took the oath of allegiance to the United States. The constitutional convention was then formally opened. Jonathan Jennings was chosen President. This was a wise choice, for he was one of the great men of his time. Before a constitution could be drafted the convention had to determine whether a state government should be formed. The close relation between the individual delegates and the people they represented, made the vote as representative of the wishes of all these people as though they had been there to speak for themselves. When a ballot was taken it showed that a large majority favored a state government.

The Constitution. The convention at once began the work of drafting the constitution. This important work lasted until the latter part of June, when the convention closed. Many of the sessions were held out of doors, for the weather was very hot, and the little state house stuffy and close. The outdoor meeting place was under the spreading branches of a great elm tree, which is still standing, and is known as the "Constitutional Elm."

A Worthy Document. The constitution itself is a masterpiece of simple and concise style. Its principles are of unquestioned strength and integrity. It is a fitting monument to the worthy men who framed it, and whose ideas of what a constitution for our state should be were founded upon the theories of American independence and a familiarty with the United States constitution and the ordinance of 1787. "In the clearness and conciseness of its style, in the comprehensive and just provisions which it made for the maintenance of civil and religious liberty, in its mandates which were designed to protect the rights of of the people, collectively and individually, and to pro-



OLD CAPITOL HOTEL, CORYDON

vide for the public welfare, the constitution which was formed in 1816, was not inferior to any of the state constitutions which were in existence at that time."*

Indiana Becomes a State. The first legislature to meet under the new constitution assembled on November 4, 1816. Three days later the new governor, Jonathan Jennings, took the oath of office. The formal admission of the state to the Union by Congress, occurred on December 11th of the same year.

* Dillon's History of Indiana. Edition of 1859. P. 559.

CHAPTER XII

PIONEER LIFE

Increase in Population. When Indiana became a state the population was between sixty and seventy-five thousand. At the time of George Rogers Clark's conquest of the Northwest, the whites in the territory now comprising

BUILDING A LOG CABIN

our state did not number a tenth of this figure. Fifty thousand immigrants seem very few for a period of three decades, but, when we stop to think of the difficulties confronting the pioneers, we wonder that so many had the

courage to make the long journey filled with hardship and danger, and with years of toil and even greater hardship confronting them in the new land.

The Pioneers. Who, then, were the men and women that left the comfortable settlements in the East and South for the wilderness settlements of Indiana? They were not wealthy, but they were rich in courage. They had great faith in their own powers and believed themselves able to wrest homes and wealth from the rough country where they were going to seek their fortunes. The pioneer is always a splendid type, for cowards do not venture as he must, and the selfish will not give up what he must sacrifice. So he is a man of courage and sacrifice—one who dares and sacrifices for the future good.

Success of Early Immigration. The pioneers, who made our great state, were of this class. They came from the South, and East, bringing in their veins some of the best blood of each section. From the South came young men of good families who wished a new country wherein to make their fortunes. From the same section came another class who were contemptuously called "poor whites" by the wealthier southerners. These people were the descendants of indentured servants who had sold themselves to serve for a given period, that they might gain passage to the new world. In the older southern communities, where all the work was done by slaves, these free white men of small means, or no means at all, had no chance for advancement, or for earning a decent living. They were, however, often men of courage and ability, and the best of them sought opportunity in the new country to the west. Some of our greatest men have come from this stock, Lincoln, of course, being the greatest of them. From Pennsylvania, New York, and the New England states, Indiana drew other immigrants who proved them-

selves to be among her best citizens. The state was a melting-pot for all the elements of the new world, and the cosmopolitan character of this early population had much to do with the future greatness of the commonwealth.

Perils Encountered by Settlers. The journey to the new home was made by boat, or in a covered wagon. Until the final treaty with the Indians at Greenville, either way of coming to Indiana was very dangerous, especially for those coming from the East. We might say that every mile along the banks of the Ohio, from Pittsburgh to the falls, has witnessed some bloody encounter between emigrants and Indians. At one point not very far from where Cincinnati now stands, is a high rock which the Indians used for a spying place. When they saw a boat coming, they carefully investigated its size and the number of its defenders, and if they found the boat poorly defended, or if their own strength was such as to warrant an attack, they fell upon it, murdered the whites, scalped them, and caried off the boat's cargo.

A True Story of an Encounter with Indians. Many thrilling stories of encounters with Indians were told by the old settlers to their children and grandchildren, who are the grandfathers and grandmothers of today. One of the most interesting of these true stories shows how the superstition of the Indians was used to save the lives of a score of white immigrants. A party made up of two families was floating down the Ohio in two flatboats. They had passed the site of the present city of Cincinnati in safety, when one night they were alarmed by the cries of Indians who were holding a war dance around a huge bonfire on the shore. Fortunately the night was dark, and no lights were showing on board either of the boats. The rear boat, on which were the horses, cattle and other livestock, was pulled up close to the first boat and the two

were made fast together. Then, praying that they might not be observed, the little party started to float past the scene of the Indian revels. The light of the huge bonfire was too strong for them to get by unnoticed, and when directly opposite the fire they were ordered to put into shore and surrender. The head of the little party whis-

AN OLDTIME FIREPLACE

pered to every one to remain well concealed and utter no sound. When they received no answer to the command, the Indians were clearly mystified. They held a brief council, and then put out in their canoes. The boat floated on, silently and without any sign of life on board. The Indians came up, and then awed by the silence they halted. A few, braver than the rest, came close and peered in. No one was to be seen, for the occupants were carefully hidden. Perhaps the savages thought it a boat full of dead men; at any rate they paddled away and returned to the camp fire. The little party, saved by this strategy, continued the journey in safety, and found pleasant homes near one of the settlements in the southern part of the state.

Indian Encounters Usually Fatal. More often the immigrants were not so fortunate as upon this occasion. When they had to engage the Indians in a fight, the whole party usually suffered death, or captivity, which was often worse than death. The flat boats were well built for defense, but when attacked by several canoes, full of savages, the case was very nearly hopeless. If the boat had sufficient defenders able to handle guns, the Indians might suffer such loss that they would retreat and give up the fight. But too often they overwhelmed the whites and murdered, scalped, and robbed them.

Flat Boats. The boats, in which these perilous journeys were made, were rough craft, little more than rafts, and

COMING TO INDIANA

very much like rafts in construction. When several families were to make the journey, they built a large raft of logs securely lashed together, put a railing around the

outer edge and erected a cabin for shelter in the center. Sometimes the boats were more on the plan of house-boats, and were built of lumber instead of logs.

Traveling by Wagon. The immigrants coming from the South could not use the water-ways, and so came in wagons, or on foot, with their possessions packed on the backs of horses or cattle. The wagon was covered with a heavy canvas top and served for the shelter of the family at night

TRAVELING BY WAGON

as well as in day time. It was usually drawn by oxen, for though slower, they could endure better than horses the hardships of the poor roads and scanty food. Traveling by wagon was far harder than traveling by boat. The country had no roads, as we think of roads today. Instead, there were blazed trails, or a trackless wilderness through which the settler must find his own way. The blazed trail was but a marked path made by some previous traveler, who had cut a portion of the bark with his axe from the

trees along his way, as guides to those who would follow after him. The trail was full of undergrowth, led over steep hills, through creeks and across rivers. When a creek or river was reached, the best fording place was carefully marked, in order to prevent a later traveler from selecting a place for his crossing that might have dangerous holes in it, or be too deep for the wagon. Despite the marked fording place, the careful immigrant usually tried the ford thoroughly before he attempted to cross it with his wagon. Unhitching one of the horses or oxen, as the case might be, the head of the party carefully tested every foot of the way across the stream, then if the ford was satisfactory, returned, hitched up the team again, and crossed with the wagon. If the river bed had changed and the ford was impassable, the immigrant had to try different places along the stream until he found one where he could cross in safety. This often consumed much time and involved not a little danger. Some streams could not be forded, and when travelers came to such streams the only thing to do was to build a raft and ferry the wagon and its load across. The horses or oxen usually swam across in the wake of the raft.

Corduroy Roads. Sometimes, in wet weather, the ground of the trail became so soft that wagon and team mired, and the immigrant had difficulty in making a few miles progress a day. On such occasions he resorted to the plan of laying brush and small saplings along the road he was to follow. These prevented both team and wagon from sinking so deep in the soft ground, and made progress much easier. Later, after some of the settlements had become permanent villages, the pioneers applied this plan to their road making, laying split logs of small size along in an orderly track, and using this for a road. These roads were known as corduroy roads. They were very rough and

bumpy, but they kept the teams from miring, and the pioneers doubtless found them a great convenience.

The Half-Faced Camp. When the pioneer family found a portion of land that suited their needs, they stopped, and began the erection of some sort of a shelter. They were always careful, of course, to take land which they knew was not claimed by some one else, and usually made certain of the free lands before leaving the last settle-

A HALF-FACED CAMP

ment. The more industrious of the settlers built log houses as soon as they had selected their land. Some, worn out by the long journey, were content to continue living in the covered wagon, or in a half-faced camp. The half-faced camp was a rude shelter made of small logs or saplings. It resembled a shed, and was left open on one side. The ground served as a floor, though it was sometimes covered with skins by way of carpet. For beds, piles of branches were laid along the wall and covered with moss

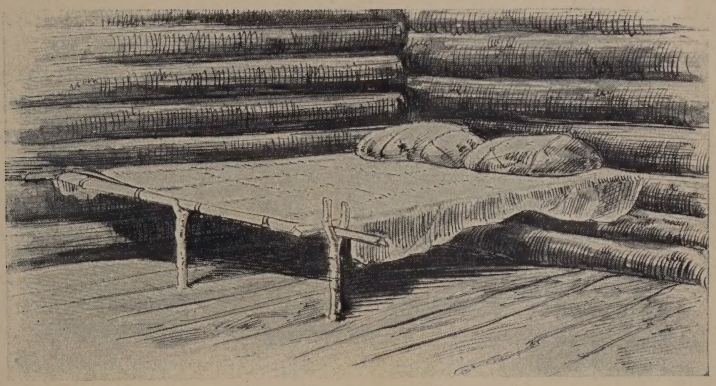
and leaves, over which the regular bedding was spread. The open side of the camp was partly curtained with canvas, or skins sewed together. There was no fireplace, and the fire was built before the opening, where the heat would be thrown into the shed. When the wind came from the direction opposite the opening, the smoke came into the shed too, and the family had to move out and sit on the other side of the fire. The half-faced camp was a poor makeshift for a house, yet it served very well for summer, and many of the pioneers who arrived in spring, or early summer, preferred to live in such a shelter until cold weather, giving the time that would be required for building a house to getting in crops that would help sustain the family through the winter. We are told that Abraham Lincoln's father, who is noted in history chiefly as Lincoln's father, allowed his family to live through their first winter in Spencer County, Indiana, in just such a shelter. Most of the pioneers were of a different type, and if the permanent cabin was not built when the family first took up their residence on a piece of land, it was erected before cold weather, and in time to give the good housewife opportunity for her preparations for the winter.

The Log Cabin. These houses in which our forefathers lived were built of logs, notched, so as to fit more closely together, and having the spaces between the logs filled in with chinking, and then plastered up with mud to make the wall solid and keep out the cold. Where field stone could not be found, or the builders did not wish to take the time to put up a stone chimney, the chimney and fireplace were built of sticks laid crosswise on each other and heavily plastered with clay on the inside. After a short time the fire hardened the clay and the chimney served quite as well as though it had been made of brick or stone. One can still see these chimneys of sticks and clay on some of the

negro cabins of the South. They are said to draw splendidly, and seldom, if ever, to catch afire.

Inside the Cabins. The interiors of these log houses were rough, but they were homelike, and the pioneer housewives usually kept them neat and attractive. The floor was commonly of clay, tramped hard. Sometimes there was a puncheon floor, made of split logs laid smooth side up. In the smaller cabins the door was the only opening to let in light, but most of the cabins boasted a window made by cutting out a section of one of the logs and covering the opening with greased paper. The fireplace, which occupied one side of the room, was large enough to stand in.

The Furniture. The furniture was largely homemade. Coming from such great distances, the pioneers were sel-



A HOMEMADE BED

dom able to bring any furniture with them. A few of the wealthier settlers in southern Indiana, some of whom at Vincennes, Madison, and other older settlements, built pretentious houses, brought with them from Kentucky, or

Virginia, the handsome mahogany furniture of the period which we today prize so highly. But the greater number of the settlers brought only a few pewter plates and spoons, some steel knives and forks, tin cups, and such bedding as could be stored in the crowded wagon. The other furniture was made by the settler with the few tools he had, and the wood that the uncut forests offered him in such abundance. Beds were built in with the house. In a corner of the cabin, four or five feet from one wall and six or seven from another, a post was driven in the ground. This was allowed to protrude about two feet, and from the top of it ran two heavy pieces to each of the walls. On this frame were strung heavy cords, or thongs, to form a thick network, serving the place of our present day springs. A tick was filled with straw or corn husks, and on top of that was placed a feather bed. The housewife often wove her own blankets and sheets, and always made her own quilts, putting into them much painstaking work and care. After the country became more thickly settled, weavers were found in all the communities, who wove bedspreads, familiarly known as coverlets. These, next to her quilts, were the pride of the pioneer housewife. In addition to beds, rude chairs, a table, some shelves against the wall, later a chest of drawers was made. The kettle hung over the fire on a hook called a crane.

Cooking. The cooking was done in the kettle and before the open fire. Wheat bread was a luxury. The common bread of every day was made from corn meal. In the early days, before grist mills were established, the meal was made at home, sometimes by grating the corn while it was soft, but more often by pounding it in a rude mortar. To make this mortar, a stump, standing close to a small sapling, was burned out in such a way that a hollow, bowl-shaped place was formed. Then a rope was tied

to the sapling, well up toward the top, and a smooth stone was fastened to the other end. The sapling bent down and acted as a spring, permitting the housewife, or one of the children, to move the stone up and down without much effort, letting it fall each time on the grain in the bowl-shaped opening of the stump. When the corn had been

AN EARLY GRAIN MILL
(From "Stories of Pioneer Life," by permission of the publishers, D. C. Heath & Co.)

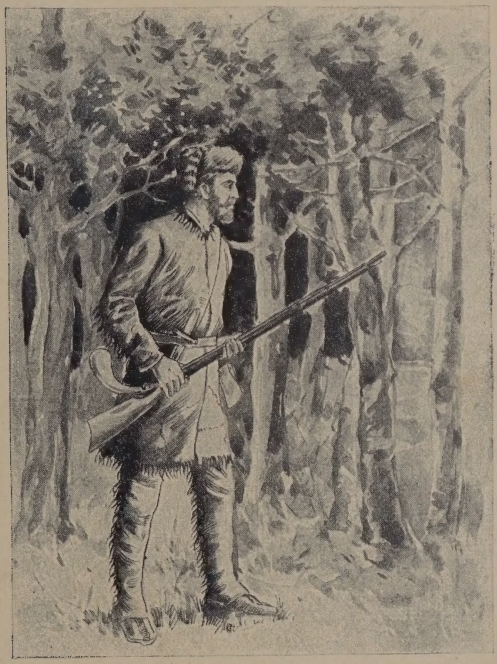
pounded fine enough, it was ready to be made into bread. The meal was mixed with salt and water to form a stiff dough, and then moulded into cakes which were put on clean, smooth clapboards and set up before the fire to bake. When one side was done, the cakes were turned and the other side put to the fire. Bread of this sort was

called "johnny cake." Sometimes the pioneer housewife brought with her to the new home a heavy iron spider in which corn bread could be baked. The spider was like a skillet, only deeper, and had three or four iron legs that made it possible to set it in the fire, or over coals pulled out on the hearth. Coals were heaped around and on top of it, and it made a very good oven in which to bake bread. When the corn bread was baked in a spider in little loaves, it was called "dodger." Potatoes were baked in the ashes, or boiled in the iron pot. Homemade hominy formed a valuable part of the diet, as it could be easily made and was a satisfying and nourishing article of food.

Food Supply. The pioneers could not buy meat of the butcher, as we can today. But the forests abounded in wild game, and only those who were lazy needed to go without meat. Deer, bear, rabbits, squirrels, wild turkeys and other fowl were found in great numbers. The pioneers usually brought chickens with them and in a few years had large flocks of poultry. Sometimes they brought cows, sheep and swine, but the cows and sheep were too valuable for other purposes to be used as food, and the swine were a source of ready money at the nearest settlement, so the farmer rarely ate much of the pork himself. The smaller game provided fresh meat, and the poultry yard and wild birds furnished plenty of fowl. If he was industrious, the pioneer could have a bountiful table, with many things upon it which we today would consider luxuries.

Clearing the Land. After the house was built, it was necessary to clear the land before any farming could be done. It sometimes happened that the settler chanced upon an Indian meadow—a cleared tract that the Indians had once cultivated. But usually the land had to be cleared before planting was possible. When the trees on a large tract had been cut, the branches trimmed, and the

brush burned, the pioneer had a log rolling, to which all the neighbors were invited. While the men rolled the logs into great piles to be burned, and the children played about at hide-and-seek and other games, the women made ready

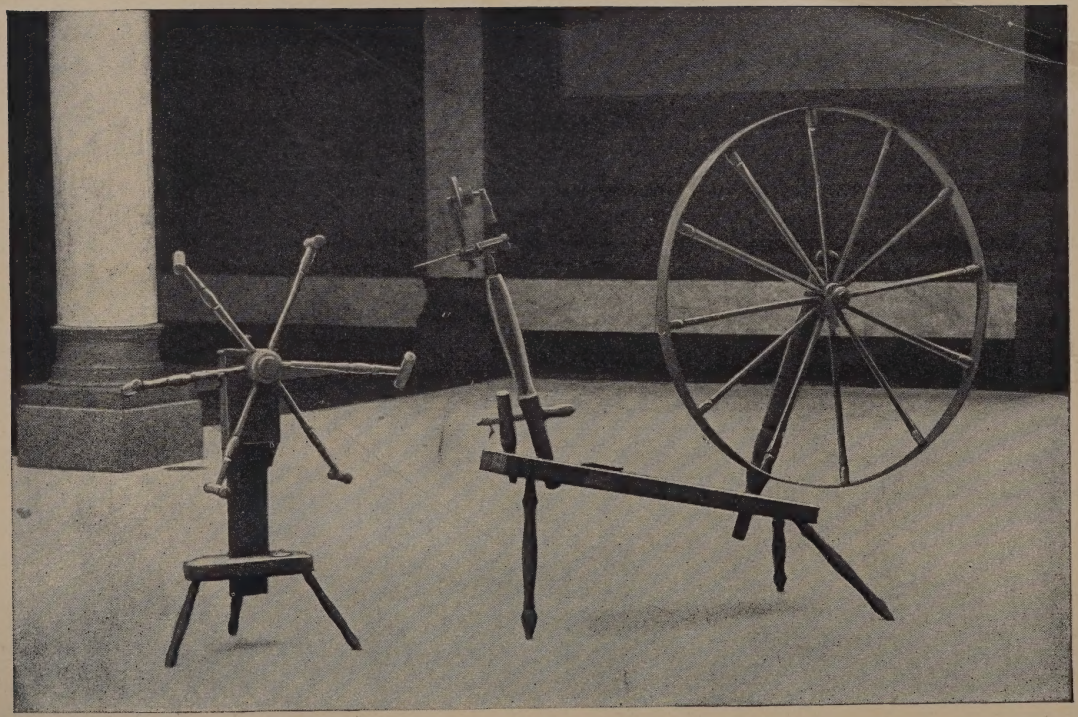


A PIONEER HUNTER

a plentiful repast. The event was quite a social occasion, for the pioneers found it necessary in their busy lives to combine their play with their work. When the logs were piled up, the piles were fired, and burned for several days. As the neighbors went home through the dusk, the glow of the flames lighted the sky as though some big building were burning.

Planting and Caring for the Crops. After the ground was plowed and prepared, oats and wheat were sown broadcast, that is, the seed scattered by hand. In place of a harrow, brush were tied together and dragged over the seed, thus covering it lightly with soil. Corn and vegetables were cultivated with a hoe. After the crops were planted, constant watching was necessary to keep away the numerous pests. Crows and blackbirds were ever ready to dig up the seeds, or to tear up the little sprouts, at the root of which the seed still clung. Later, when the grain was ripe, the birds were just as great a nuisance, for they hovered over the fields, ready to take their share if opportunity offered. Grain was too precious to feed to the birds, so the children were put at the task of frightening them away. Pounding on tin cans and yelling were the favorite methods of the boys and girls assigned to this task.

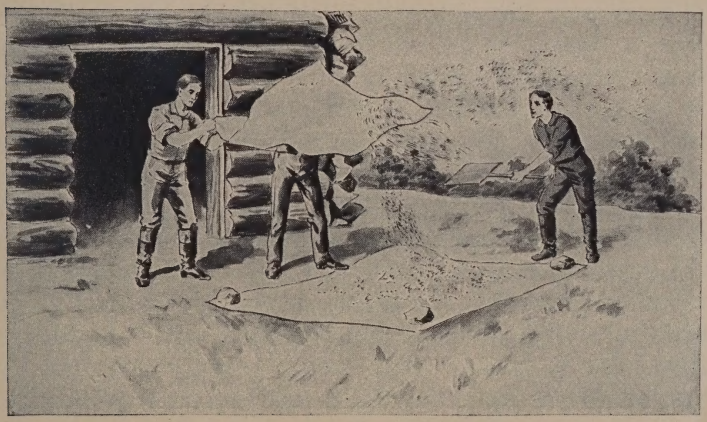
Cutting and Threshing Grain. When the wheat was ripe it was cut by hand with a sickle, tied in bundles, and then placed in shocks. Later, the cradle came into use, but it was many years before the invention of the self-binding reapers in use today. The cradle was like a scythe, but had in addition, a set of long wooden fingers parallel to the blade which were designed to catch and hold the grain. The threshing machine is also a comparatively recent invention, and in the days of the pioneers threshing was a long and rather troublesome process. The grain was spread out on the floor of a shed, or on the hard, bare ground, and beaten with a flail. The flail was made by fastening a piece of hickory wood to a stout handle with a leather strap or thong. The end piece had plenty of play, and could be swung about in all directions. The wheat was beaten with this instrument until the grain was separated from the straw. The chaff still remained, and to



SPINNING WHEEL AND REEL

get rid of it the grain was tossed in the air by a man with a shovel, while two other men created a strong breeze by fanning with a linen sheet. The chaff blew away, while the heavier grain fell down in a golden pile.

Flax and the Weaving of Linen Cloth. Flax was another important crop in those days. Enough was raised to supply the family with linen for the year. The fibers were separated from the lint by various processes, when the "tow," as it was called, was spun into thread and



FANNING AWAY THE CHAFF
(From "Stories of Pioneer Life," by permission of the publishers, D. C. Heath & Co.)

woven into cloth on a hand loom. Bed and table linen, dresses and underclothing, and shirts for the men and boys were made from the various qualities of this linen cloth.

Wool Growing and Weaving. Woolen cloth, too, was woven by the housewife on her loom. The sheep were sheared and the wool carded and spun, after which it was woven into cloth and dyed with homemade, vegetable

dyes. In the earliest days, however, little weaving was done, for the women had too many other duties to perform while the new home was being established. Then clothing was often made of buckskin, and was smiliar to that worn by the Indians.

Mail. Often the early settlers wished to send letters to friends in the old home, while these same friends were just as eager to send letters to the settlers. But at that time the United States postal service had not been established, and the carrying of mail was a private enterprise. If the pioneer wished to send a letter to his old home in the East or South, he took it to the nearest settlement, and from there it was carried by some traveler who was going in the general direction of the place to which the letter was addressed. The first man passed it on to some one else who was going nearer to the address, and so on through several hands, until the letter at last reached its destination. Letters coming to Indiana met with about the same experiences. The time required for a letter to reach its destination was usually several weeks, and often months. With our quick and safe mail service of today, it is hard to realize that only a century ago Indiana was so remote from the world, and communication with outsiders was so difficult.

Progress of Civilization. Gradually, after the war of 1812, and peace with the Indians, immigrants began to come in greater numbers, and the country became more thickly populated. Villages, towns, and cities sprang up, and the rigors of pioneer life were replaced by the comforts of civilization. We have constantly progressed until today we hold high rank among the states of the Union.

Our Debt to the Pioneer. The debt we owe to the pioneer is a great one, but a debt that we can pay only in our reverence and respect to the memory of his courage

and heroism. From the wilderness he made fertile farms and laid the foundation of the wealth of today; but like Moses, he often had only a glimpse of the promised land, for the strides of our progress had just begun when the first generation of pioneers began to pass away.

CHAPTER XIII

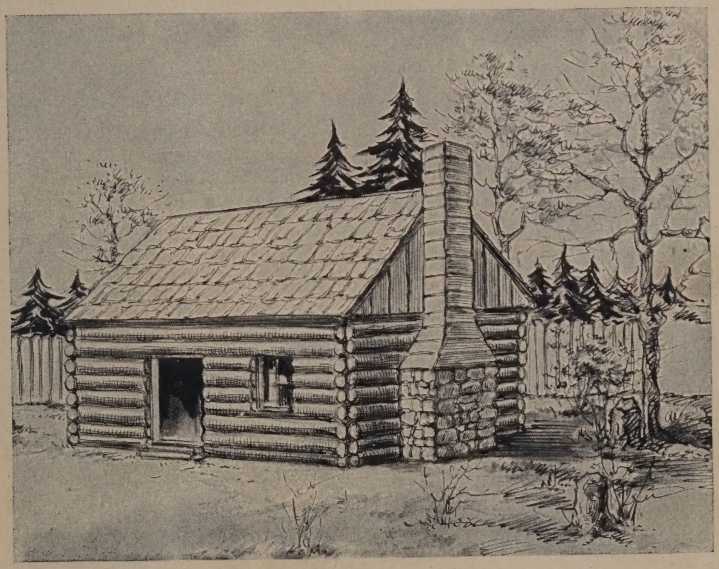
EARLY SCHOOLS

Early Instruction. The earliest instruction given within the confines of the State was by French priests, at the various trading stations. One of the early fathers wrote to his superior "as these people have no books, and are naturally indolent, they would shortly forget the principles of religion, if the remembrance of them was not recalled by these continued instructions. We collect the whole community in the chapel, and, after answering the questions put by the missionary to each one without distinction of rank and age, prayers are heard and hymns sung." It is probable that some of the priests attempted to teach the children to read and write. These efforts met with little or no success, for the frontier Frenchman had as little use for mental effort as he had for physical toil. No real school existed in the territory until after the American occupation. It is generally supposed that Father Rivet held the first school at Vincennes, in 1793. A few years later there is a record of another school at a settlement in what is now Dearborn County.

Circulating Teachers. Soon after the first American settlers came from the East and South, attempts were made to teach some of the rudiments of knowledge. As the homes were far apart, and the danger from Indians and wild animals great, it was not feasible to gather the children together for instruction. The conditions were met by the employment of a teacher who traveled from house to house, spending about one-third of a day with a family.

In this way it was possible for the teacher to give the children in six families three lessons per week. These "circulating teachers," as they were called, did good work and succeeded in imparting some knowledge of the three R's—"Readin', 'Ritin', and 'Rithmetic."

Home Schools. When the people grew more numerous, and the dangers from Indians and wild animals



WHERE LINCOLN ATTENDED SCHOOL
(In Spencer County)

decreased, the children were gathered together at the home of some settler. Here, in a lean-to, at the side of the house, the school was conducted. In many cases the teacher was the wife or daughter of some pioneer. These temporary meeting places were replaced as rapidly as possible by the log-cabin school houses, constructed by neighborhood coöperation.

The Log School Houses. The early school houses were very similar to the houses of the settlers. They were built of round logs, and covered with four foot boards held in place by weight poles. The heat was furnished by a fireplace that occupied the greater part of one end of the building. Judge Banta tells of an early school house in Johnson County that had a chimney in the center resting upon four posts. The fire was built on the ground under the chimney. These primitive school houses received light through an opening in one side made by the removal of one of the logs. This opening was generally latticed and covered with greased paper. Just inside the opening a puncheon hewn thin, rested upon pins, and served as a writing desk for the more advanced pupils. This puncheon could be raised up and pinned in place, thus securely closing the window opening. Many of the buildings had nothing but dirt floors. Some more pretentious ones had puncheon floors. The seats were benches made of split logs, with hickory pins for legs.

Various Make-Shift School Houses. In these early days, many buildings constructed for other purposes were made to serve as school houses. Sometimes an abandoned block house was used. During the summer, it was not uncommon to teach the school in the open, or in the barn of some settler. It is said that the first school in the town of Vevay was taught in a gristmill. One of the early schools in Bartholomew County was taught in a blacksmith shop. In Spencer County an unused tannery was utilized.

The Teacher and His Wages. The teachers of these early schools were many times adventurers from the East or from across the ocean, who taught while waiting for an opportunity to do something else. Some of them were excellent men, and made lasting impressions upon their pupils. They usually "boarded around"—that is, they

INDIANA IN 1817

lived with the families whose children they taught. Each family kept the teacher a time proportionate to the number of children attending. The schools, it should be remembered, were supported by subscription. Each family subscribed for whatever number of children it cared to have receive instruction. The usual rate for a three-months' term was $1.75 per child, provided the teacher boarded around, or $2.50 per child if the teacher boarded himself.

Methods and Subjects of Study. The instruction in the school was usually without either method or system. Textbooks were scarce. In many cases three or four children of different ages, from the same family, would have among them but a single book. This might be a speller or it might be the New Testament. The instruction was not by classes, but individually. Each pupil was called up by himself and made to recite his lessons alone. The idea never seems to have occurred to these early teachers that children of the same grade of advancement might profit greatly by reciting together. In most of the schools the children were required to study "out loud." It was believed that studying in this way would develop the power of attention. The course of study was not organized. Each pupil was allowed to study about what he pleased. In general, spelling, reading, writing and arithmetic, to the single rule of three, constituted the limit of the work attempted. Sometimes there was a student or two in grammar. Occasionally some educated teacher would succeed in having a pupil study Latin. When this occurred, the school in which it happened received a great reputation throughout the entire community.

Constitution and Education. When the Constitution of Indiana was adopted, the Ninth Article was devoted to education. No document ever spoke more clearly upon

the subject of general education than the first Indiana Constitution. It provided that the lands granted by the United States Government for school purposes could not be sold prior to 1820. It also fixed forever the permanency of the funds coming from the sale of these lands. The second section of this Article read: "It shall be the duty of the General Assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a state university, wherein tuition shall be gratis and equally open to all." It also provided that all money received from persons exempted from militia duty, and also all fines assessed for any breach of the penal law, should be applied to the support of the country seminaries. The constitution made "the preservation of a free government" the reason for encouraging learning and supporting schools. The system proposed was to be public, and it was meant to be state-controlled and centrally administered.

Law of 1824. In 1824 a law was passed which gave the townships the right to elect three trustees who were to hold office for one year. They had general charge of the school lands and school funds. They were required to divide their townships into districts. They were also empowered to examine teachers and grant licenses. As these men had but little education, the examinations were very much in the nature of a farce.

Barnabas Hobbs' First Examination. Barnabas Hobbs speaks of his first examination as follows: "The only question asked me at my first examination was, what is the product of twenty-five cents by twenty-five cents. As this question did not occur in Pike's arithmetic, I could not answer it. The examiner thought it was six and one-quarter cents, but was not sure. We discussed its merits for an hour or more, when he decided that he was sure I was quali-

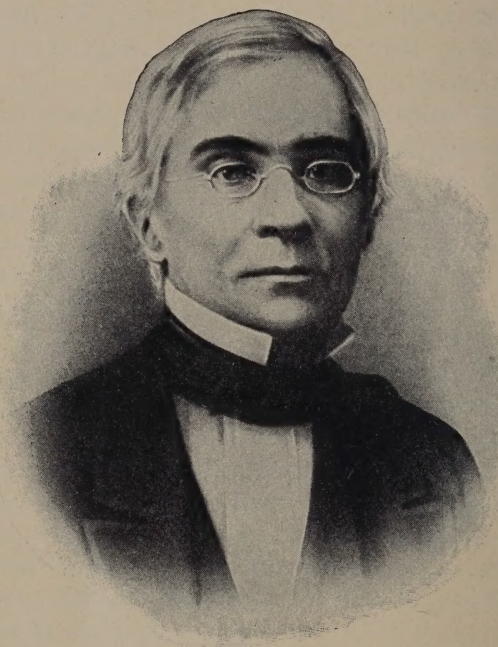
fied to teach school, and a first-class certificate was given me."

Teachers Paid in Produce. Tuition in the schools opened under the law of 1824 was not free. The revenue from the school lands was so small that it would not go far in paying the teacher. The teachers were paid by the patrons in produce of various kinds. We find records showing that they were frequently paid in pork, corn, tow-linen, leather, cord wood and butter.

Opposition to the School System. Many school laws were passed between 1824 and 1850. Some of these laws were local in character, and to be executed only provided the people themselves accepted them by a majority vote. The people generally were opposed to free schools and to any measure that gave state control. Several very excellent laws were passed, but either they were not enforced or the courts declared them unconstitutional.

Slow Progress. In spite of the promise in the constitution, and the many laws enacted by the legislature, but little progress was being made. It was asserted by one competent to judge, in 1834, that the "state of common education in Indiana is truly alarming. Only about one child in eight, between five and fifteen years, is able to read. The common schools and competent teachers are few." President Tuttle of Wabash College writes: "In 1840 there were 273,784 children in the state of school age, of whom 48,180 attended the common schools. One-seventh of the adult population could not read, and a large proportion of those who could read, did so imperfectly. . . . As late as 1846 the state was rated lowest among the free states as to its popular intelligence and means of popular education. Even the capital of the state did not have a free school until 1853, and then one was kept open only two months."

Caleb Mills. It is fortunate that at this dark time in the history of the state, there were men in different communities who saw clearly the need of education and who possessed the quality of leadership. Beyond any doubt, the greatest of these men was Caleb Mills, of Wabash College. Mr. Mills was a native of New Hampshire and a graduate



CALEB MILLS

of Dartmouth College. He came as the head of the English Department to Wabash College, in 1833. He at once took a deep interest in the educational development of his adopted state. From his coming to the state until his death, in 1879, he was a great, if not a controlling force, in every educational act of the legislature.

Mills' Messages. Beginning in 1846, Caleb Mills issued a number of messages either to the General Assembly of Indiana or to the people of the state. In these messages, which were signed "One of the People," Professor Mills set forth in clear and convincing arguments the need of a state-controlled and state-administered system of education. He called the governors and legislators to account for their failure to make proper provisions for the education of all the people. The work of Mills gave renewed courage to other prominent friends of education in different parts of the state.

Vote for Free Schools. The whole question became one of interest and general discussion, and resulted in the legislature of 1847 providing for a popular vote upon the question of free public schools. In October of 1848, after a very exciting campaign in which the very strongest arguments for and against general education had been set forth, the people voted upon the question, "Are you in favor of free schools?" The result was 78,523 for free schools, and 61,887 against them. As Professor Boone says in his History of Education in Indiana, "It was a victory, but chiefly because it was not a defeat."

Law of 1849. As a result of this vote in favor of free schools, the legislature of 1849 passed "An act to increase and extend the benefits of common schools." This act had in it thirty-one sections, and was most formidable in its appearance and provisions. It made the schools of equal length throughout each township, provided for a system of records and reports, which, through the district and township trustees, the county officials and the superintendent of common schools was intended to extend the knowledge of the new system to all parts of the state. Perhaps the greatest provision of the law was that legalizing public taxation for the support of the schools. The

greatest weakness in the law was, that it left to the voters of each county the right to determine whether or not the law should become effective. In the vote upon this question in 1849, the majority in favor of the law was 15,767. Out of the ninety counties in the state at that time, fifty-nine accepted the law and thirty-one rejected it. The law provided that those refusing its privileges in 1849 should vote annually upon the question thereafter. A number of counties never assented to the law, but continued to operate under the old laws.

County Seminaries. The Constitution of 1816 made special provision for the support of county seminaries. One of the very early laws related to the establishment of public seminaries. This act became a law in 1818, and is known as the "County Seminary Law." Under the provisions of this law and other laws that were passed from time to time, many seminaries were established in the various counties of the state. Laws were also enacted that gave seminary privileges to private corporations. Under such acts from 1816 to 1851, 73 seminaries were established. These seminaries were real centers of culture. They were not public in the sense that tuition was free, for in all of them the students had to pay for their instruction.

Tribute to the Seminary. Professor Boone, in his History of Education in Indiana, pays this deserved tribute to the old seminary: "After the extremest criticism has been passed upon the deficiencies of the means of general public education during the period, it must be said that for no people or any generation has there been provided more efficient teaching, more generously supported considering their resources, or more generally appreciated, than in these supplementary institutions that made the State honorably famous just prior to and following the

middle of the century. On a frontier not yet freed from the swamp and thicket, where there was little wealth and less leisure, in more than a score of towns and country neighborhoods, were well-known and prosperous centers of the severest classical and disciplinary culture. No compromise was made with the practical. Their training was altogether 'liberal' and general. They imitated the older East in the curriculum, and rivaled it in method and efficiency. The really classically educated, both among pupils and teachers, were relatively far more common than now."

CHAPTER XIV

THE STATE CAPITAL MOVED TO INDIANAPOLIS

Former Capitals of Indiana. The territory forming the state of Indiana had many capitals before the establishment of the permanent capital city of Indianapolis. Under the French, the capital was Paris. Quebec, as the seat of government of the province to which the larger part of Indiana belonged, exercised authority over the posts at Ouiatanon and Miamis, but not over Vincennes, which was a part of the province of Louisiana, and received orders from New Orleans and Fort Chartres. Miamis and Ouiatanon were dependent on Detroit for supplies and reënforcements, and the commandant at that post was the superior officer of the commandants of the two Indiana forts. With the close of the French and Indian war, and the treaty of 1763, Indiana passed under the control of Great Britain, and the capital became London, with the commandant at Detroit as the chief local representative of the King. When George Rogers Clark made his famous conquest of the Northwest, the region came under the control of the colony of Virginia, with the seat of government at Williamsburg, and then at Richmond. When Virginia and the other states ceded to the federal government their claims to western lands, Indiana became part of the Northwest Territory, with the capital at Marietta, Ohio. When Indiana Territory was organized in 1800, Vincennes was made the capital, and so remained until the removal to Corydon in 1813.

Congress Donates Land for a Capital. After the admission of Indiana to the Union, in 1816, Congress made a

donation of four sections of free land for the establishment of a capital city for the new state. This land was to be selected by the state legislature, from "such lands as may hereafter be acquired by the United States from the Indian tribes within the said territory." It was generally understood that the capital was to be located on the west fork of White River, since that was the only navigable stream in the central part of the state, and since a location could be found there which would be near the geographical center of the state.

The New Purchase. At this time the Miami and Delaware nations each laid claim to all the territory watered by the White River. These claims comprised about the central third of the present state of Indiana. In 1809, Governor Harrison had made an attempt to stop the disputes of the two tribes by having them sign a treaty, in which, among other things, it was agreed that neither tribe would dispose of the disputed territory without the consent of the other. The state government was very desirous of securing this fertile region, and so, in October, 1818, Governor Jennings assembled the Miamis and the Delawares at St. Mary's, Ohio, to treat with them for the disposal of their lands. The result of this was a treaty by which the government of the United States secured the Indian title to the central third of the present state of Indiana. This region was called the "New Purchase," and as such it is known in history.

Commissioners Appointed. The survey of the "New Purchase" was pushed forward, and on January 11, 1820, the legislature appointed ten commissioners to locate the capital. They were required by law to meet "at the house of William Connor on the West Fork of White River, on a day to be named," and to select "a site which, in their opinion, shall be most eligible and

advantageous for the permanent seat of government of Indiana."

Site of Indianapolis Selected. The commissioners assembled at William Connor's house, which was located some four miles below the present city of Noblesville, May 22nd. After being sworn in, they adjourned to meet on the 24th at the mouth of Fall Creek, on White River. They did not meet so soon, however, for the next five days were spent in exploration of the land bordering on the river, near the place selected for their meeting. On the 27th they assembled, and "agreed to select and locate the site in Township 15 north, of R. 3E." This was in fact their meeting place, and the site of the present city of Indianapolis.

Advantages of the Site. The selection has proved to be very advantageous, though at the time it was made it did not seem wholly so. In their report to the legislature the commissioners justify themselves in the following words: "The undersigned have endeavored to connect with an eligible site the advantages of a navigable stream and fertility of soil, while they have not been unmindful of the geographical situation of the various portions of the state; to its political center as it regards both the present and future population, as well as the present and future interests of the citizens." Certainly we will admit that the commissioners were wise and farseeing, and that their regard for the interest of the future citizens is well repaid by those citizens today. The site is the natural one for the metropolis as well as the capital of Indiana. Though the railroad was then not dreamed of, the location makes Indianapolis a natural railroad center.

Disadvantages of the Site. The chief disadvantage was the swampy character of the site. Several small streams kept the lowlying ground always damp. In wet weather these overflowed and covered portions of the site with

water. In the early days of the town, malarial fevers, old time ague, and other diseases which the swamp country bred, were numerous. The sufferings from these diseases were such as we can hardly believe today. In 1821 the few settlers in the little village suffered excessively. It was a very damp, rainy summer. By the last of July nearly every one in the little community had been "took," as they called it, with ague. One of the settlers afterward wrote that "one day my father was suffering for water and no one was able to draw a bucket." Another settler wrote much later, that he had "served a regular apprenticeship at the ague, and worked at journey work at the chills and fever, and thought he had graduated."

The Naming of Indianapolis. By the act of January 6, 1821, the legislature ratified the selection of the site for the state capital, and also provided for the selection of three commissioners to lay out the town and appoint an agent for the sale of the lots. By the same act the name Indianapolis was given to the new capital. The naming of the newly created city caused no end of debate. Various names were suggested, among them Tecumseh and Suwarror. Judge Jeremiah Sullivan, one of the legislators, finally suggested Indianapolis, a combination of Indiana and the Greek word *polis*, which means city—Indianapolis meaning city of Indiana. Today we think the name most apropriate, for it makes plain to all the world where the city so named is located, and that it is the capital of the state. But, though the legislature adopted the name, it made much sport of it, and the state as a whole was inclined to take it as a joke. The *Indiana Sentinel*, published at Vincennes, announced the naming of the new capital in the issue of January 15th, 1821, in the following manner: "One of the most ludicrous acts, however, of the sojourners at Corydon, was their naming the new seat of

Government. Such a name, kind readers, you would never find by searching from Dan to Beersheba; nor in all the libraries, museums and patent offices of the world. It is like nothing in heaven nor on earth, nor in the waters under the earth. It is not a name for man, woman, or child; for empire, city, mountain or morass; for bird, beast, fish or creeping thing; and nothing mortal or immortal could have thought of it except the wise men of the East who were congregated at Corydon. It is composed of the following letters: I-N-D-I-A-N-A-P-O-L-I-S."

Planning the City. Surveyors were appointed who set to work laying out a city in the wilderness. One of the two men appointed had helped in the survey of Washington, D C., and had profited by the taste and skill of Major L'Enfant, the Frenchman who so ably designed the plan of our national capital. To these two surveyors Indianapolis and the state owe much. They laid out a city which is the admiration of all who visit it, and which is not excelled in beauty and convenience of plan by any city on the continent. The original plan was a mile square. In the center was a circle, then called Governor's Circle. Radiating from this circle, at a point a block distant, were four avenues, cutting across diagonally to the four corners of the square. The original city was bounded by North, South, East, and West streets. Provision was made for the location of public buildings and parks. In its broad features, this plan has been consistently followed. The steady growth of the city has made necessary the addition of many times the original territory, but the spirit of the original plan has been retained, and we have today one of the finest of the middle-western cities as the capital of our state.

Indianapolis in 1822. In 1822 the beautiful city existed only on paper, and the reality was a swampy, malarial tract, with stumps in the streets, a few log dwellings and

SOLDIERS' AND SAILORS' MONUMENT, INDIANAPOLIS

shops, and a population of about five hundred. It had not even a post office at that time, the nearest one being at Connersville. The post office was established late in 1822, and its establishment was celebrated by the few inhabitants as a great event, The mails arrived semi-monthly. The Centerville mail, as it was called, was carried by a lame fiddler named Amos Dilly. Amos's arrival was a most welcome event, and was generally celebrated by a dance, for which he furnished the music.

The First Newspaper. The first newspaper was established about the same time as the post office. It did not appear daily, as its several successors do now, but came out every two weeks, or whenever enough news had been collected to fill an issue. It was called *The Gazette.*

State Offices Transferred to the New Capital. The court house was the first public building, and was built on ground donated by the legislature—the site of the present Marion County Court House. State funds were used for the building, and it was to serve for the meetings of the legislature until a State House was erected. In November, 1824, the books and other state papers were brought in a wagon from Corydon, the journey requiring ten days' time. Indianapolis then formally became the capital of the state, and the legislature met there for the first time the following year.

Progress of the New Capital. Lots were sold, meanwhile, and houses were built. The little backwoods village settled down to an existence about like that of other similar settlements, except when the legislature met, at which times "trade picked up," and the presence of many strangers lent an added interest and excitement to the life of the community. The manner in which the legislators were lodged was hardly to their satisfaction, but was quite the best that could be done for them. Six were usually

lodged in one cabin. When we consider that the cabins were seldom over twenty feet square, we can appreciate how crowded the lawmakers were. For the privilege of such accommodations, with board included, the price was three dollars per week. The members thought this very

STATE CAPITOL BUILDING, ERECTED 1832
(Formerly on site of present State House)

high and threatened that "they had once removed the seat of government from Corydon because of the extortions of its citizens, and that they would do so again." This was of course all talk, for the capital was then permanently located on ground donated by the government. As time went on, accommodations improved, four brick houses were built, more settlers came, and the town gained some connection with the outside world by the stage route to Madison and Michigan City, which was opened in 1828. White River was not bridged until 1834, and up to that

time a ferry boat was operated at the foot of Washington Street.

The Governor's Mansion. The circle, where the beautiful Soldiers' and Sailors' Monument now stands, was originally intended as the place for the location of the Governor's mansion. In 1827 the legislature appropriated 4,000 dollars for the purpose of building a residence for the Governor. The mansion was put up that year. Among other specifications, the act directs that the residence be inclosed by an "elegant and tasteful rail fence." It was a large, square brick house, with the rooms of the lower floor so arranged that they could be thrown together for balls or assemblies. The building was never occupied by a governor of the state, for as soon as it was built it became apparent that the location was too exposed for residential purposes. The house served a variety of uses, until it was torn down in 1857.

The First Railroad. On October 1, 1847, the first railroad into Indianapolis was completed, and the first train entered the city. The road ran to Madison, connecting Indianapolis with the Ohio River. The day was celebrated in a fitting manner, and attracted great crowds of people. To add to the greatness of the day there was "Spalding's North American Circus," which the bills claimed was made up of over 200 people, including "35 widely celebrated lady and gentlemen artists at the acme of their profession," and a brass band of "15 picked musicians in lusterous uniforms." The local paper, *The Journal*, gave an account of the events of the day, some of which is so interesting to present-day readers that it is worth quoting. Speaking of the arrival of the first train, *The Journal* says: "Soon a dark spot in the distance was descried by those picketed upon the furtherest outposts; then was heard the shrill whistle of the locomotive,

echoing through hoary forests and over verdant fields, and shout answering to shout, as the two iron steeds, puffing and snorting majestically, turned the curve in the road a short distance from the town, followed by two long trains of passenger and freight cars, completely filled with human beings, the ladies waving their white handkerchiefs and the men and boys using their lungs in answering back the long, loud huzzas from the people awaiting their approach." The Governor made a speech from the top of the car, after which there was more applause, and then a scramble to get on the cars for the pleasure ride to Greenwood and back. The railroad company charged fifteen cents for this excursion, and during the first week carried passengers for one-third of the regular fare.

The Old Capitol. By 1830, the court house was crowded by the growing legislature, and the need was felt for a permanent state house for the accommodation of state offices, the state library, and the law library. The legislature found that the unsold lots, in the original tract donated by Congress, would bring about 56,000 dollars, and resolved to sell these lots and use the sum in the building of a capitol. The building, designed by a New York architect, was completed in 1835, at a total cost of about 60,000 dollars. It was considered a very fine building, and for that day it was. It was about 200 feet long and 100 feet wide, and followed the style of the Parthenon at Athens in the exterior, though a dome was added in the center of the roof. It was not very well built, and before it was replaced "acquired the appearance of a genuine Grecian ruin." It was a pleasant old building, nevertheless. Mr. J. P. Dunn, speaking of it says: "But with all its dilapidation, there was a charm about the old State House that can never be found about its more business-like successor. Indeed, there was no suggestion of business about the old State House unless the

legislature was in session or a crowd was assembled by some other special event. . . . It was a genuine pleasure to stroll in on a warm summer day, up the worn steps, past the battered columns of the porticos, into the cool, musty corridor, and then nose around in the state library and museum, which was the chief attraction of the building. and rivaled the asylums as the chief show place of the city."* The old state capitol was so dilapidated and overcrowded by 1867, that a small additional building was put up for the use of the supreme court and state officers. In 1877 the legislature appointed four commissioners to build a capitol costing not over 2,000,000 dollars. The present building was completed in 1888.

Indianapolis in 1826. The *Indiana Gazetteer* published in 1826, says of Indianapolis: "It is supposed the place now contains about 800 inhabitants, 7 stores, 4 taverns, 1 clock and watchmaker, several cabinetmakers, carpenters, saddlers, hatters, shoemakers, tailors, brick and stone masons, plasterers, chairmakers, wheelwrights, etc. It also contains 2 printing offices, a post office, a library, a Sunday school, a bible society, and a masonic lodge,—3 clergymen, 3 physicians and several lawyers."

In 1833. A later *Indiana Gazetteer*, published in Indianapolis in 1833, says: "In the summer of 1829 there were 1,085 inhabitants, 41 of whom were blacks. No enumeration has been taken recently, but it is supposed the population is now about 1,600."

Increase of Population. The increase in population, at first very slow, became quite rapid after the Civil War. The census of 1840 showed a poulation of 2,692, that of 1850, 8,091. In 1860 the population had reached 18,611, and in the next ten years grew at a then remarkable rate, reaching 48,244 in 1870. The census of 1880 showed

* J. P. Dunn, "History of Greater Indianapolis." P. 105.

75,056; that of 1890, 105,436. In 1900 it had reached 169,146; while the latest census shows 233,650. In less than a century this great city has sprung up, greater than its founders ever dreamed, and destined always to hold an important place among the cities of the United States and the world.

CHAPTER XV

THE NATIONAL ROAD

Early Trails. The first roads in Indiana followed the old Indian trails, and the blazed trails made by the settlers. These trails, of both Indian and white origin, extended over the state in a network that would surprise us today by its extent, could we map out all of those now forgotten and obliterated pathways.

Need of Roads. No definite system of road building was begun until four years after Indiana had been admitted to the Union. The first settlements of importance were found along the Ohio and Wabash Rivers, and, since these water-ways afforded communication, the need for roads was not felt. In 1820 the vast territory comprised in the "New Purchase" was thrown open to settlers, and the need of roads into this fertile region at once became apparent. Furthermore, the state capital was soon located in the very heart of this new territory, and roads were needed from all sections of the state to permit the legislators and others to reach the seat of government.

Road Building Begins. "In 1820 not less than twenty-six roads were projected, and as many sets of commissioners appointed to view the lands and mark out the routes. The roads not only connected the older towns of the state, but extended into the interior. Two were to lead to the proposed capital, and one was from Lawrenceburg to Winchester, this latter being by subsequent act extended to Fort Wayne. During the next ten years there was repeated and lengthy legislation on this subject of state roads,

showing the paramount importance of highways in the early days of the new commonwealth. Many other roads were added to the original system, some were re-located, and there were various modifications. In the main, however, the first ideas were carried out, and on a road map of 1835, now existing, at least two-thirds of the state is pretty well criscrossed with highways other than the local country roads "*

Sources of Revenue for Roads. Revenue for the building and maintenance of roads came from three sources. The first was known as the three per cent. fund, and was a donation from the general government. Out of the money derived from the sale of public lands, five per cent. was set aside for internal improvements. Two-fifths of this went to the government for works of general benefit, while three-fifths went to the state for improvements within her borders. In Indiana this fund amounted to over half a million dollars. Road tax, assessed on all real estate, was another source of revenue. The third source was a labor requirement, which specified that all male inhabitants between the ages of twenty-one and fifty should work on the roads for two days in each year, or pay a sum equivalent to this work.

Early Roads Very Poor. The early roads were cleared and graded, but seldom piked, and were consequently very poor. The state was at that time very swampy in all but the hilly land to the south. The uncut forests held back the moisture so that the streams were full of water during the greater part of the year. "Most of the year a journey over the roads was simply a slow, laborious wallowing through mud; the bogs were passable only through the use of corduroy, and this corduroy of poles laid side by side for miles, not infrequently had to be

* Cottman's History Pamphlets. No. X, P. 17.

weighted down with dirt to prevent it floating off when the swamp waters rose. . . . As one proceeded he must track to right and left, not to find the road, but to get out of it and find places where the mud was 'thick enough to bear.' . . . Innumerable stubs of saplings sharpened like spears by being cut off obliquely, waited to impale the unlucky traveler who might be pitched out upon them, and the probability of such accident was considerable, as the lurching wagon plunged over a succession of ruts and roots, describing an exhilarating seesaw with most astonishing alteration of plunge, creak and splash. Ever and anon the brimming streams had to be crossed, sometimes by unsafe fording and sometimes by rude ferries. In the latter case the ferry keeper was apt to be off at work somewhere in his clearing, and the traveler had to 'halloo to the ferry' till he could make himself heard."*

Such, then, were the first roads in Indiana. Naturally they were a great detriment to the progress of the state, for they made communication and commerce difficult, and stopped many immigrants without the state borders.

The National Road. The National Road crossed the state from east to west, entering it near Richmond and leaving it west of Terre Haute. It was completed through Wayne County in 1827, but the other portions of it were more slow in construction. The total length of the road through Indiana is one hundred forty-nine and one-fourth miles.

Congressional Action Regarding the Road. The road was the result of much discussion in Congress, which came to a head in 1806, in an act to regulate the laying out and making of a road from Cumberland, in the state of Maryland, to the borders of the state of Ohio. Commissioners were appointed, surveys made, and after many reports, and much debating, Congress appropriated money for the

* Cottman's History Pamphlets. No. X, p. 17.

enterprise. East of the Ohio the road was well constructed. The cost averaged six thousand dollars per mile, exclusive of bridges and culverts. Appropriations for extending the road west of the Ohio River, and through the states of Ohio and Indiana, were very hard to get through Congress, and so the construction of the road through the part of the country that most needed it, was put off from year to year. When appropriations were finally made, they were not nearly so bountiful as those made for the eastern portion of the highway.

The Road a Long Time in Construction. The construction of the road dragged its slow length through nearly half a century. It passed through Indiana, and as far as Vandalia, Illinois, after which it could get no farther. The construction through Indiana and Illinois was the poorest of any on the road—in fact, the farther west the road went the worse it became. Through Ohio to the end of the road in Illinois, the average cost was but three thousand dollars per mile, just half of what the eastern part of the road had cost. In many places the only work done was to clear away the timber, grub up the stumps, and dig ditches. The road was not given a stone or gravel coating, the only thought being to open a track over which wagons might be hauled through the mud. Sometimes in the swampy lands, sections of corduroy were put in, but stone and gravel were not added until the road became the property of the counties through which it passed, or was leased to private companies.

Traffic on the Road. As the National Road improved and became more passable, the traffic upon it was very heavy. The "carriers," as the men who drove freight wagons were called, were very numerous, and their wagons served the same purpose as the railway freight trains of today in carrying goods from place to place. Passengers

were carried in stage coaches, which plied between all the larger towns on the road. These stages connected with each other, so that it was possible to start from the eastern end of the highway and make the journey by stage to the western terminus.

Stage Coaches. The stage coaches were very magnificent affairs for that day, handsomely painted without and comfortably upholstered within. Nine passengers could be carried inside, and an additional passenger on the box beside the driver. The horses were fine animals, capable of high speed. They were well fed and cared for, and beautifully matched and harnessed. Altogether, the old time stage coach was a sight worth going a long way to see. No wonder the children of the villages hailed the arrival of the stage coach as the event of the day. First, off in the distance, came the faint sound of the driver's horn echoing through the quiet country. The sound grew louder, and then the stage coach burst into view, coming at break-neck speed, rounding curves with a fascinating recklessness, and drawing up before the inn door with a grand flourish. If the village happened to be a post station, the horses were unharnessed, while a groom trotted out a fresh team to take their places. Meanwhile the mail was given to the innkeeper, or storekeeper, who acted as local postmaster; the passengers who had reached their destination alighted, and others, perhaps, took their places. The driver blew a shrill blast on his horn, snapped his whip, and off dashed horses and stage coach for the next village. This would seem very slow travel for us today, and rather tedious, uncomfortable travel, too. But there was a certain glamour of romance and adventure about it all that modern travel in a train of steel cars lacks.

Life on the National Road in 1840. An old man, who was a little boy back in the halcyon days of the National

Road, has given us the following account of what he saw along that road in the Eighteen Forties:—

"From morning till night there was a continual rumble of wheels, and when the rush was greatest, there was never a minute that wagons were not in sight, and as a rule, one company of wagons was closely followed by another.

. . . . . .

"Many families occupied two or more of the big road wagons then in use, with household goods and their implements, while extra horses, colts, cattle, sheep, and sometimes hogs, were led or driven behind. Thus, when five or ten families were moving in company, the procession of wagons, men, women, children and stock, was quite lengthy and imposing. The younger women often drove the team, while the men and boys walked by turns, to drive and look after the stock; and now and then there would be an old-fashioned carriage, set upon high wheels to go safely over stumps and through streams. The older women and little children occupied these, and went bobbing up and down on the great leather springs, which were the fashion sixty years ago.

"But everybody did not travel in that way. Single families, occupying only a single one or two-horse wagon or cart, frequently passed along, seeming as confident and hopeful as the others, while even the resolute family, the members of which carried their worldly possessions upon their backs or pushed them forward in hand wagons, was not an unfamiliar spectacle to the little boys who watched by the way.

"The wagons, horses and other belongings of the movers were fair indications, not only of their worldly condition and intelligence, but also of the sections from whence they came. The great Pennsylvania wagons, with their

elaborately paneled beds, running up high in front and rear, were also used by the better-to-do Virginians and Carolinians, with this difference, that the Pennsylvania wagons were very large and often drawn by four or six fine horses, well matched for size and color, while the Virginians and Carolinians seldom drove more than two horses. A company of these well-to-do movers with their great wagons, large, well-groomed horses in heavy harness, glittering with brass-headed rivets, rings and other ornaments, with bows of melodious bells either above the points of the hames or upon the heavy backbands, and with great housings of bearskin covering the shoulders, and red plumes nodding from the headgear, was a sight that the small boy put down in his book of memory, never to be forgotten.

"Very different from these were the little Southern carts, drawn by the little, bony Southern horses. It is a matter of tradition that numbers of these little Carolina wagons and carts were wrought of the tough young oak timber that grew upon the old fields of the South, and that the wood was so tenacious of fibre and the vehicles so well constructed by the rural wagon-makers, that they stood up through the journey over the mountains and along the roughest of roads without the aid of so much as an iron nail, and without tires, or any kind of metal brace. The feet of the horses or mules that drew them were also guiltless of iron, and the children in the villages and upon the farms were quick to discover the arrival of a new Carolina family by the tracks of the tireless wheels and the shoeless horses.

. . . . . .

"With the tinkling of the bells, the rumbling of the wheels, the noise of the animals and the chatter of the people as they went forward, the little boy who had gone

to the road from his lonesome home in the woods was captivated and carried away into the great active world. But the greatest wonder and delight of all was the stage coach, radiant, in new paint and drawn by its four matched horses in their showy harness, and filled inside and on top with well-dressed people. I think yet that there has never been a more graceful or handsome turnout than one of these fine old stage coaches drawn by a team of matched horses and driven by such drivers as used to handle the ribbons between Richmond and Indianapolis. We could hear the driver playing his bugle as he approached the little town, and it all seemed too grand and fine to be other than a dream."*

The Road Today. Gradually, after the coming of the railroads, the glory of the National Road declined, until at last it was just a common highway, lacking its stage coaches, its carriers, and its trains of immigrant wagons. Once the "broad highway" of the country, over which passed rich and poor, the resplendent stage coach, and the poor immigrant's two-wheeled cart, it is now but an ordinary road over which the farmer jogs to market, disturbed now and then by the passing of an automobile, or an electric trolley on the track that follows along by the road. The glory and glamour of its past are gone, but we should cherish the memory of those golden days as one of the most interesting chapters in the annals of our early history.

* Mr. B. S. Parker, in J. J. Piatt's Ohio Valley Annual, "The Hesperian Tree" for 1903.

CHAPTER XVI

ERA OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS AND THE MEXICAN WAR

An Era of Internal Improvement. In the ten years between 1830 and 1840, the state of Indiana undertook a vast system of internal improvements, calculated to open up new territory, increase trade, and furnish revenue to the state treasury. For ten years the leading men of Indiana had favored such a system, and discussed the question of providing for it by law. The period was one of internal improvement throughout the land. In the East, railroads were being built, and the Erie Canal had just been completed. In her first wave of prosperity, Indiana attempted to do on a grand scale what the older and wealthier portions of the country were doing. That she should have failed now seems inevitable, but at the time the people of the state saw only success in view, and were wildly enthusiastic.

The Michigan Road and the Erie and Wabash Canal. In 1830, construction was begun on a public road running from Madison, on the Ohio River, to Lake Michigan. The road passed through Indianapolis, and gave the capital its first direct connection with the Ohio River and the numerous settlements and towns located along it. To aid in building this road, and the projected Erie and Wabash Canal, land grants estimated to be worth $1,250,000 were made by Congress. The canal was to begin at some point on the lower Wabash, or on the Ohio River, and extend across Indiana and connect with the Erie Canal in Ohio.

In 1832 the work of construction was started. Contracts were let for the building of thirty-two miles of the canal, and the construction was pushed rapidly forward. Work was begun at the St. Joseph River, and in 1835 was completed to the forks of the Wabash.

Plan of Internal Improvements. The apparent success of these initial ventures finally encouraged the legislature of 1836 to pass a law providing for a magnificent scheme of internal improvements. These improvements were in eight divisions. First, the White Water Canal, which extended from White Water River to Lawrenceburg, together with some connecting branches. Second, the Central Canal, to commence at the Erie and Wabash Canal, between Fort Wayne and Logansport, extending by way of Indianapolis and the valley of the West Fork of White River to the junction of the two forks of White River, thence to Evansville and the Ohio. Third, an extension of the Erie and Wabash Canal from the mouth of the Tippecanoe River, down the Wabash valley to Terre Haute, and thence by way of Eel River, to connect with the Central Canal in Knox County. Fourth, a railroad to extend from Madison, through Columbus, Indianapolis and Crawfordsville, to LaFayette. Fifth, a macadamized pike from near Fredericksburg through Paoli, Mt. Pleasant, and Washington, to Vincennes. Sixth, a railroad, if practicable after a survey, from Jeffersonville to Crawfordsville, by way of New Albany, Salem, Bedford, Bloomington and Greencastle. If the railroad was not practicable, a pike was to be built over the same route. Seventh, to improve the Wabash River from Vincennes to its mouth. Eighth, a canal, or railroad from the Erie and Wabash Canal near Fort Wayne, to Lake Michigan, at, or near Michigan City, by way of Goshen, South Bend and La Porte.

Work Begun. At first all went well. Governor Noble, in his message to the legislature in December, 1837, said:— "In the experience and events of the year, nothing has been witnessed of a character to discourage the progress or the ultimate success of the system. On the contrary, we see much to strengthen our convictions of the wisdom of the policy, and to inspire us with increased confidence in the ability of the state, with wise and provident legislation, to accomplish the whole undertaking." And certainly it looked as though the Governor's confidence was well founded. By the system every part of the state would be benefited. The estimated cost was only $20,000,000, and of this sum the legislature appropriated $10,000,000 and issued bonds for the remaining amount. A board of public works had been appointed to superintend the construction, and had let contracts and seen the work begun on all of the most important of the projects. At the time Governor Noble delivered his message the work was just under way, and the entire state was exulting in a wave of prosperity and optimism.

Period of Great Prosperity. For a short time this happy condition continued. The people had no doubt whatever of the final success of the great system of improvements. The revenue from them, it was popularly supposed, would be so great as to fill the state treasury and make taxation unnecessary. Labor was for a time in such demand that no one needed to be idle; and the wages paid were high. Every one had money to spend, and seemed able to get plenty more. Property increased in value, and land along the lines of the proposed improvements sold for what were then fabulous sums. People speculated wildly, for they were seized by the desire to "get rich quick."

Failure of the Plan. Several factors contributed to the failure of the system and the collapse of the mushroom

growth of prosperity that had sprung up because of the projected improvements. The first reason lay in unwise legislation, due largely to the ignorance of the legislators regarding the great system the state had undertaken to build. The funds were managed extravagantly, and the inflated values of land and labor made the cost of the projected improvements much greater than had been estimated. The board of public works was poorly organized and its administration of funds was careless. Then in the latter part of 1837, began a financial panic with all of the scarcity of money and the financial paralysis that accompany these periodic disturbances.

Governor Wallace's Message. In December, 1839, Governor Wallace spoke of the crisis to the legislature in the following section of his annual message: "The failure to procure funds . . . has lead to great and unusual embarrassments, not only among the contractors and laborers, but also among the people. The state has, in consequence fallen largely in debt to the former, and is without means in possession to discharge it."

"Red Dog" Currency. In order to pay the contractors, the legislature authorized an issue of state treasury notes to the amount of one million five-hundred thousand dollars. This state script, as it was called, passed at face value for a short time, but soon depreciated until it was worth only forty or fifty cents on the dollar. Naturally a depreciated paper currency did not help the financial situation. Because it was printed on red paper, people contemptuously spoke of it as "red dog" currency. When at last the state began redeeming it, the currency rose again to face value, and was even worth a premium because of the accumulated interest.

"Blue Pup" Currency. While the panic lasted real money was very scarce. Merchants, contractors and

others, resorted to the issue of private paper currency, which was redeemable usually only in trade. This, because it was often printed on blue paper, was spoken of as "blue pup" currency. In addition to the "red dog" and "blue pup" paper money, other depreciated paper currency, issued by "wild cat" banks in surrounding states, flooded Indiana.

Condition of the State. In the next few years various measures to relieve the state were adopted. That the large sums already expended might not be a total loss, arrangements were made to turn over the half-finished improvements to private companies. The total length of canals, railroads and turnpikes, projected in 1836, amounted to twelve hundred and eighty-one miles. In the year 1841, only two hundred and eighty miles of these improvements had been built, and the state found herself $15,088,146 in debt, and unable to pay even the interest due on this sum.

Prosperity Returns. Within the next ten years, through careful administration, the state was placed once more on her feet financially, public confidence returned, and business again resumed its normal activity. Never has the state seen such a boom, and enjoyed such prosperity as she did in the brief period when the internal improvements were begun; and never has she suffered another such a period of depression as that following upon the failure of the great plan.

Texas Secures Her Independence. In 1845 the United States became involved in a war with Mexico over the western boundary of Texas. Texas was originally part of Mexico, but American settlers were attracted by its fertile soil, and, by 1830, formed a majority of the population. The ideas of government held by these American settlers were very different from those of the Mexicans. Then, too, the Americans differed greatly in race, manner of living and

religion. Friction was the result, and the Americans finally declared themselves unable to live under Mexican rule. So, in 1836, Texas revolted and declared herself independent of the Mexican government. In the battle of San Jacinto the Texans were victorious, and their independence was assured.

Texas Annexed. War with Mexico. The next step was to secure annexation to the United States, but it was not until 1845 that Congress saw fit to pass a law making Texas a part of our country. It was at the time of her annexation that the dispute arose over the western boundary of Texas. United States troops were sent to occupy the disputed territory and were attacked by the Mexicans. This led Congress to declare war, and the President issued a call for 50,000 volunteers.

Indiana Responds to the President's Call. Indiana was but poorly prepared to supply men for the war. The militia system had been abandoned, and very few of the men in the state had experience or knowledge in military service. But the desire to serve their country was strong, and when President Polk sent out the call for volunteers, Indiana furnished five regiments, comprising 4,470 officers and men.

Service of Indiana Soldiers in the War. The fact that few of this number had ever seen service, studied military tactics, or practiced drill, placed the troops at a disadvantage, particularly when compared with those from southern states, which were made up of men trained in military service and officered by West Point graduates. But despite their disadvantages the Indiana troops were brave and efficient soldiers. Only one exception to this statement occurred throughout the war, and is excusable when we consider that probably none of the men concerned had ever before faced the fire of battle. At the Battle of Buena

Vista, February 22, 1847, the second regiment broke and fled from the field. This unfortunate incident cast a stain upon Indiana's military record that only the service she performed during the Civil War could wipe out. But the regiment had some excuse for its action, and the critics of the time were unnecessarily harsh in their open condemnation. The position of the Second Indiana was most perilous. They occupied a place far in advance of the other American troops, and were exposed to a murderous fire of musketry and artillery. Green soldiers as they were, it is little wonder that they did not stand their ground. The Indiana volunteers were in service less than a year. Their loss amounted to two hundred and sixty-eight men, of whom fifty were killed in battle, and two hundred and eighteen died of wounds and disease.

End of the War. The war ended in complete victory for the United States, and Mexico was forced to accept whatever terms our government dictated. The terms were most advantageous for us, for by the treaty the United States secured the territory now comprised in Texas, New Mexico, Utah, Arizona, Nevada and California, an area of 890,000 square miles, for an indemnity of only $18,000,000.

CHAPTER XVII

THE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION OF 1850. GOVERNMENT OF INDIANA

Constitutional Convention Called. By 1850 the feeling that Indiana had outgrown her old constitution was general throughout the state. When the proposition to call a constitutional convention was put before the people, they voted in the affirmative. The convention assembled at Indianapolis on October 7, 1850, and continued in session until February 10, 1851.

The New Constitution Adopted. The constitution of 1816 was made the basis of the new constitution, though many important changes were made and new measures introduced. The new constitution was voted on by the people, and adopted by a vote of 109,319 to 26,755. On one article, the thirteenth, a separate vote was taken, but it was adopted by practically the same majority.

Discrimination Against Negroes. The thirteenth article of the new constitution provided that: "No negro or mulatto shall come into, or settle in the state after the adoption of this constitution." Contracts made with those violating this provision were void, and any one employing or aiding such persons was subject to a fine. The fines collected were to form a colonization fund to be used for negroes, already in the state, who were willing to emigrate. Article two granted suffrage to "every *white* male citizen of the United States," and in the fifth section specified that: "No negro or mulatto shall have the right to vote." Amendments removing these restrictions, and giving the

negro the right of suffrage were agreed to by the general assemblies of 1877 and 1879. On March 14, 1881, they were ratified by the voters of the state.

New Measures and Changes in the Constitution. The following important changes and new measures were introduced into the constitution of 1851: The sessions of the general assembly were made biennial instead of annual; the right to elect the secretary, treasurer and auditor of state was taken from the legislature and put in the hands of the people; instead of being appointed by the governor, supreme court judges were made elective by the electors of the state at large; circuit judges were to be elected by the voters of their districts; special legislation of a local nature was prohibited; under the heading of "Corporations," general banking laws were provided, and the state was forbidden to become a stockholder in any bank or corporation; the cause of public education received much attention, and the provisions made were definite, wise and generous.

Distribution of Powers. The state constitution divides the powers of government into three separate departments: The legislative, executive, and judicial. These branches are made as nearly independent as possible, and are intended to serve as checks upon one another. The constitution provides that: "No person charged with official duties under one of these departments shall exercise any of the functions of another, except as . . . expressly provided."

The Legislative Department. The authority to make laws for the state of Indiana is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives.

Membership. The senate may not exceed fifty members, and the house of representatives may not exceed one hundred members. The membership of each division is now at its maximum. Both senators and representatives

are chosen by the voters of the respective counties and districts of the state. The term of a senator is four years, and of a representative two years. One-half of the senators are elected biennially, so that there are always some experienced men in the upper house. To be qualified for the senate or the house of representatives, a man must be a citizen of the United States, two years an inhabitant of Indiana, and one year an inhabitant of the district or county from which he is chosen. A senator must be at least twenty-five years, and a representative twenty-one years of age.

Sessions. The sessions of the general assembly are held in the odd years, beginning on the "Thursday next after the first Monday in January." Their duration is limited to sixty-one days, but special sessions, limited to forty days, may be called by the Governor at any time he may think the public welfare demands. The Lieutenant Governor is president of the senate by virtue of his office. The senate elects one of its members to serve as president in his absence. The house of representatives elects its own presiding officer, known as the "Speaker." The sessions of the senate and the house of representatives are open to the public except in those cases when, in the opinion of either body, its sessions demand secrecy. Two-thirds of either body constitutes a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may meet, adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of absent members. Either the senate or the house of representatives may punish its members for disorderly behavior, and may, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member; but not a second time for the same cause.

The Making of Laws. Bills may originate in either house, but may be amended or rejected in the other. The exceptions are bills for raising revenue, which must originate in the house of representatives. Every bill must be

read by sections on three different days in each house, though in an emergency a two-thirds vote may set aside this rule. Each bill may embrace but one subject, and the matters connected with it, and this subject must be expressed in the title. All laws are required to be general and to operate uniformly throughout the state. The constitution specifically enumerates seventeen subjects on which the legislature is forbidden to pass special legislation. After a bill has received a majority of the votes of each house, it must be signed by the president of the senate and the speaker of the house. It then passes to the Governor for his signature. If he signs it, it becomes a law as soon as it is published and circulated in all the counties, unless an emergency clause specifies that it go into effect at once. If the Governor refuses to sign the bill, he sends it back, with the reasons for his action, to the house in which it originated. If the two houses still favor the bill, they may pass it over the Governor's veto. If any bill is not returned by the Governor within three days after it has been received by him, Sundays excepted, it becomes a law without his signature. The exception to this is at the end of a session when the general adjournment prevents the bill's return. In such a case it becomes a law unless the Governor files it, with his objections, within five days after the adjournment with the secretary of state. It then comes up before the next general assembly in the same manner as a bill vetoed during the session.

The Executive. The executive powers of the state are vested in a Governor, who holds his office during four years, and is not eligible to more than four years in any period of eight years. The Lieutenant Governor also serves for a period of four years. Both are elected "at the times and places of choosing members of the general assembly." In case of a contested election, the general assembly decides

the matter. To be eligible for Governor or Lieutenant Governor, a person must have been five years a citizen of the United States, and a resident of Indiana during the five years preceding his election. For either office the candidate must be at least thirty years of age. In case of the Governor's removal from office, or his death, he is succeeded by the Lieutenant Governor, and the successor of the latter is elected by the general assembly. The Governor is commander-in-chief of all of the military and naval forces of the state, has the right to veto all bills, as before stated, and has the power to "grant reprieves, commutations and pardons, after conviction, for all offenses except treason and cases of impeachment." The Lieutenant Governor is, by virtue of his office, president of the senate. He has a right, when in committee of the whole, to join in the debate and vote on all subjects. Whenever the senate is equally divided the Lieutenant Governor may cast the deciding vote.

Administrative Officers. The various state administrative officers divide with the Governor the executive functions. They are not subordinate to, but coördinate with him. The chief of these administrative officers are: The secretary, treasurer and auditor of state, the superintendent of public instruction, the attorney general, the state geologist and the state statistician. They are chosen at the general elections. The other state officers and the members of the boards of the various state educational, benevolent and penal institutions also share the executive functions.

The Judicial. Under the constitution, the judicial power of the state is vested in a supreme court, circuit courts, and such other courts as the general assembly shall see fit to establish. Acting under this latter provision, the legislature has instituted an appellate court for the state at large,

superior and criminal courts for certain counties, has authorized mayors' courts and police courts for cities, and has made the superior court of Marion County a court of claims. The courts of justices of the peace were established by the constitution.

The Supreme Court. The purposes of a trial in the supreme court are to determine whether a law has received its proper application by the lower courts, and whether it is in harmony with the provisions of the constitution. The judges are elected by all the voters of the state, one from each judicial district. There can not be fewer than three, or more than five. The maximum number now serve. The term is six years.

The Appellate Court. The apellate court was created in 1891 to relieve the pressure on the supreme court. It has jurisdiction over all appealable cases not expressly under the jurisdiction of the supreme court. Its judgments are final, except in cases where the amount involved exceeds $6,000. The object of all regulations in regard to the appellate court is to keep its rulings in general conformity with those of the supreme court. It consists of six judges, whose term of office is four years. The court is divided into two divisions, each of which has three judges elected from the two appellate court districts of the state. Cases arising in one district are tried by judges of the other district.

Circuit Courts. There are sixty-one circuit courts in the state. In each circuit a judge is elected by the voters for a term of six years. This judge presides over the court in the county or counties comprising his circuit. The circuit courts possess criminal, civil, equity and probate jurisdiction. In each circuit a prosecuting attorney is elected every two years.

Superior Courts. In Allen, Marion, Tippecanoe, Vanderburg, Vigo, Madison, Grant and Howard counties, and

in the district composed of Lake, Porter and La Porte counties, superior courts have been established. In general, the superior courts have concurrent jurisdiction with the circuit courts, which they were created to relieve. The Marion County superior court is recognized as a court of claims to decide cases in which persons make a money demand against the state.

Criminal Courts. In Marion, Allen and Vigo counties, criminal courts have been created. They have original exclusive jurisdiction of all crimes and misdemeanors, except where jurisdiction is by law conferred upon justices of the peace, and such appellate jurisdiction in criminal cases as the circuit courts of those counties exercised before the creation of the criminal courts. The criminal courts in Allen and Vigo counties have now been abolished, leaving only the one in Marion County.

Municipal Courts. In cities of the first, second, third and fourth classes, municipal courts are provided. The judges are elected for four years. Such courts have jurisdiction over misdemeanors and petty offenses of various sorts, where the penalty can not exceed a fine of $500. In cities of the fifth class the mayor serves as judge of the municipal court.

The Township. The township is the simplest and oldest of our governmental institutions. Each county is divided into as many townships as convenience demands. The officers for each township are: A township trustee, three members of his advisory board, an assessor, one or more justices of the peace, and an equal number of constables, a supervisor for each road disrict, and a director for each school district. The township trustee is the most important township officer. His powers embrace matters concerned with financial affairs, roads, elections, the poor, and the schools.

The County. Since 1851, Indiana has been divided into ninety-two counties. For each of these there is a county seat where the court-house, jail and other public buildings of the county are located. All county officers, except the superintendent of schools, are elected by the people. They are the commissioners, the five members of the county council, the clerk of the circuit court, the auditor, the recorder, the treasurer, the sheriff, the coroner, the surveyor and the assessor. The township trustees choose the county superintendent of schools. The officers of the county serve in the administraton of the laws of the state in the district under their jurisdiction, and as the agents of the people of the county in the performance of those services which concern the county and its inhabitants as distinct from the rest of the state.

CHAPTER XVIII

INDIANA SCHOOLS

School Legislation. The legislature of 1851–52 was the first general assembly to meet after the adoption of the new constitution, and was confronted with the task of putting this constitution into effect. The cause of public education had received much attention in the convention, and wise provisions for a public school system were incorporated in the constitution. To put these provisions into effect, the legislature passed a number of educational laws. A law authorizing the townships to levy taxes for school purposes, not to exceed fifty cents on the dollar, and fifty cents on each poll, gave elementary education a great impetus. This law, however, was short lived, for the courts decided that it was inconsistent with the constitution, which provided for a state system of schools. The immediate effect of this decision was to shorten the average school term to about two and one-half months, and reduce the average yearly salary of teachers to $54. Curiously enough this decision did not affect cities and incorporated towns. They continued to exercise the right to levy a local tuition, and for a few years enjoyed great prosperity. At last, however, a decision of the courts took away from them this right. In most of the cities and towns the schools were closed, many of the best teachers left the state, and the people generally were discouraged. To give some chance for education, a number of the old seminaries were reopened, and a few new ones were established. The conditions were so unsatisfactory that finally the

legislature was induced to reënact the law that had been declared unconstitutional. This law, establishing the right to levy local tuition taxes, has remained in operation ever since, and has made it possible for each community to have as good schools as it is willing to pay for.

The State Board of Education. Another law of 1852 created a state board of education, consisting of the Governor, treasurer, auditor and secretary of state, and the

TYPE OF SCHOOL THAT IS DISAPPEARING

superintendent of pubic instruction. In 1855 the attorney-general was added. This board had general oversight of the school fund, and also selected textbooks. The board, with the exception of the superintendent of public instruction, was nonprofessional. Indiana was fortunate in discovering early that such a board could not manage educational affairs properly. In 1865 this board was replaced by a board made up of the Governor, the president of Indiana University, the superintendent of public instruction, and the school superintendents of the three largest

cities in the state. In 1872 the president of the State Normal School was added, and in 1875 the president of Purdue University. In 1889 the Governor was authorized to appoint three additional members, one of whom must be a county superintendent, and all of whom must be actually engaged in educational work. Experience has shown this to be a real educational board. Critics generally agree that it is the best state board of education in the nation. School prosperity in the state is due to the wise direction of this board, and to the careful charge which it gives to educational matters. It inspects and commissions schools, has general oversight of accredited schools for the training of teachers, selects and contracts for the uniform textbooks used in the state, and examines and licenses teachers.

Indiana School Fund. Indiana is fortunate in having a large, permanent school fund. This fund now amounts to more than $11,300,000, and is so carefully guarded that its principal can never be reduced. This fund has accumulated from the following sources:—

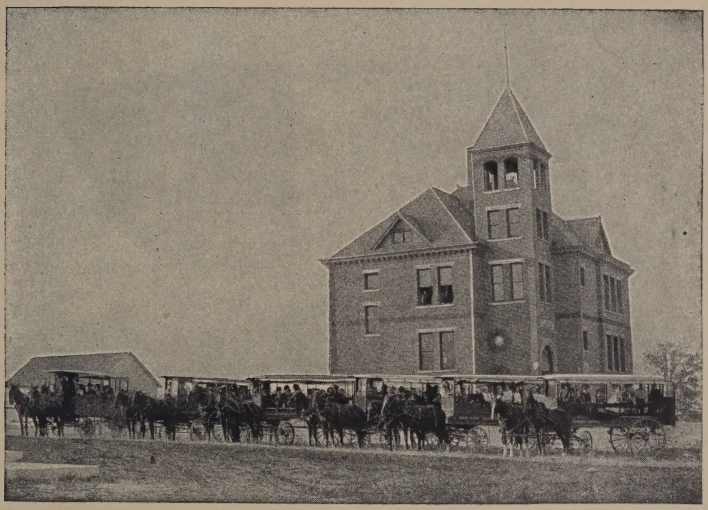
1. The sale of the 16th section of each township granted by the federal government.
2. The money received from the profits of the state bank.
3. Money received from the national treasury in 1836.
4. Receipts from salt and swamp lands.
5. Proceeds from the sale of the county seminaries.
6. Receipts from fines and forfeitures.

The County Superintendent. The county superintendent of schools is a great factor in the educational work of the state. This office was created by the legislature in 1873. Previous to this time there was an officer known as the county examiner who had several duties to perform, the most important of which was the examination and licensing of teachers. The county superintendent serves

AN INDIANA TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL

four years. He has control of the schools of his county, and is the medium of correspondence between the schools and the superintendent of public instruction. Much of the success of the common schools is due to the direct supervision and inspiring leadership of this officer.

The Present School System. Indiana has enacted laws which make it possible to consolidate schools and trans-



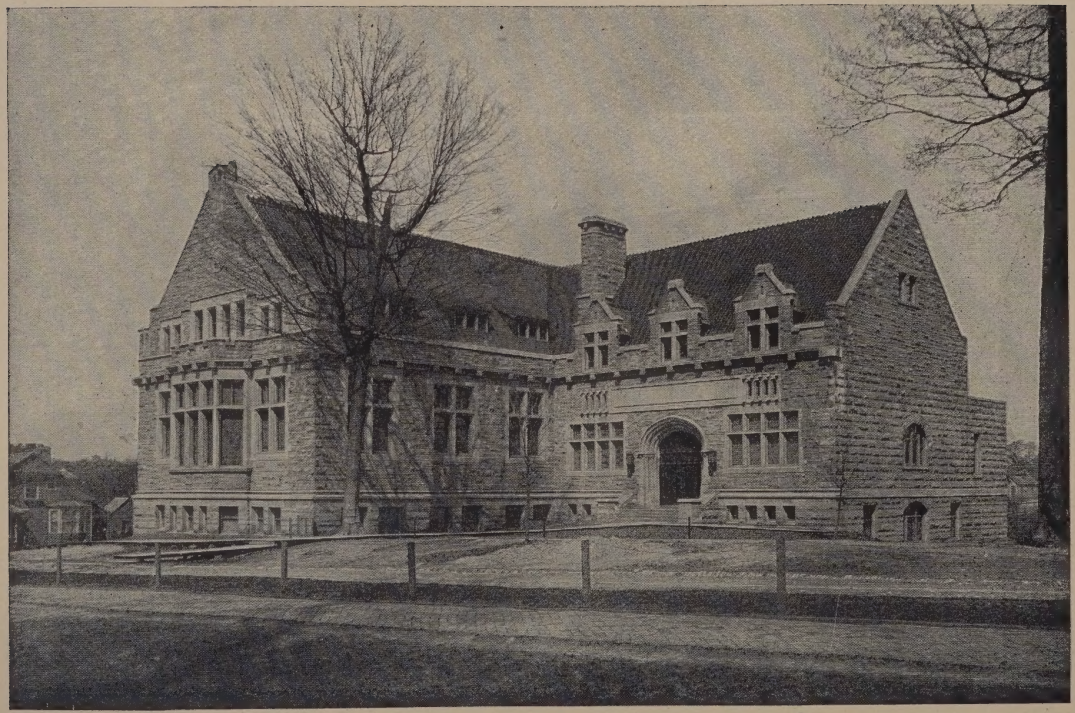
TYPE OF SCHOOL THAT IS APPEARING

port pupils. These laws have resulted in replacing in many parts of the state the old country school house, with its meagre equipment, by a centrally located building with good equipment, good teachers and a well-organized course. The early definition of the high school as part of the common school system has made it easy to develop secondary education to a higher degree than is found in most states. The whole educational organization gives to Indiana a

school system. This system, with its small number of responsible officers, has been able to get things done. Today, more than ever before, the common schools are the hope of the state.

Interdependence of Educational Units. Neither the elementary schools nor the high schools could have developed to their present efficient condition had it not been for the interest of the people in higher education. The three phases of education, elementary, secondary and college, are not independent. No one of these phases can become what it should be independent of the others. Indiana's high rank educationally is due in large measure to the fact that all three phases have been developed together and have mutually helped one another.

Vincennes University. The first institution of higher education established in Indiana was Vincennes University. The courts of the United States set apart a township in Gibson county to be used for the support of the institution. The university was incorporated by an act of the territorial legislature in 1806. This legislature designated a board of trustees, and gave them power to make laws and organize the university in a manner "not inconsistent with the laws of the territory or of the United States." William Henry Harrison, Governor of Indiana Territory, was president of the Board of Trustees. To his learning and enthusiasm the new institution was greatly indebted. The university was to be open to the Indians, for in the charter it was "enjoined on the said trustees to use their utmost endeavors to induce the said aborigines to send their children to the university for education, who, when sent, shall be maintained, clothed, and educated at the expense of said institution." It seems that this very liberal plan of the institution was not attractive to the Indian. So far as the records show, only one Indian was ever admitted as a student. The



LIBRARY, STATE UNIVERSITY

new school had a hard struggle during its early years. In 1824 its lands were appropriated for the support of the seminary at Bloomington. For a number of years its doors were closed. In 1846 an act of the legislature enabled the university to bring suit against the state for the funds that it had appropriated. Finally, through a decision of the supreme court, the university recovered from the state $66,585. In 1895 the legislature gave the institution $15,000. In 1911, as the result of further legislation and court decisions, the university received $134,548 from the state. Vincennes University is now better able to perform her duties to the public than ever before. She has had a long list of strong, capable teachers and has graduated many men and women who have made valuable contributions to the development of the state.

Indiana University. When Indiana became a state, it was provided that a township of land should be set apart for a seminary of learning. This township was located by President Monroe in Monroe county. The land was not to be available until four years after the admission of the state to the Union. The legislature of the new state passed a bill founding Indiana Seminary, January 20, 1820. A board of trustees was designated and was authorized to make plans for the opening of the new school. May 1, 1825, the institution was opened for students. Professor Raynard R. Hall was the first teacher, and for a few years the only one. His salary at first was $150 per annum. This was later raised to $400, and he was given an assistant at a salary of $300. The attendance at the seminary was 13 students the first year, 15 the second, and 21 the third. In 1828 the title Indiana Seminary was changed to Indiana College. One of the most fortunate things that happened to the new institution in 1829, was the election of Dr. Andrew Wiley as president. He remained at the head of

the college until 1851. He was a man of learning, an able teacher, and a forceful public lecturer. He did much to popularize the institution with the people of the state. In 1838 the legislature changed the name of the institution from Indiana College to Indiana University. The state has not supported its university as well as some of the neighboring states have supported theirs. But the money given to it has been made to do great service. The liberality of the state toward the institution has increased from year to year. The college of arts and sciences, the college of law, the school of education and the graduate school are located at Bloomington. The medical college is located in the city of Indianapolis. The attendance at the university has reached more than 2,500 annually, and the influence and service of the institution have become great factors in the state.

Purdue University. In 1865, the state accepted the provision of the Morrill Act of 1862. A board of trustees was appointed to manage an institution under the name of the Indiana Agricultural College. On the receipt of a gift of $150,000 from John Purdue, the state agreed to name the institution Purdue University. The state also accepted a gift of 100 acres of land from the citizens of LaFayette, and a donation of $50,000 from Tippecanoe county. The institution was located at West LaFayette, and was opened to students on the 20th of March, 1874. Under the direction of able presidents and a strong faculty, this institution has grown to be one of the best known technical and agricultural colleges in the country. Its direct value to the state in an agricultural way can not be estimated. It has done and is doing, work that answers practical questions upon all forms of agricultural life. In the training of engineers of various kinds it has rendered a service of equal importance.

AUDITORIUM, PURDUE UNIVERSITY

The State Normal. In 1865 an act was passed providing for the establishment of "a state normal school, the object of which shall be the preparation of teachers for teaching in the common schools of Indiana." The school was located at Terre Haute, because this city donated the site, gave $50,000 toward the building, and obligated itself to pay annually one-half the necessary expenses for repairs. The school is managed by a board of five trustees, four of whom are appointed by the Governor, and the fifth is the superintendent of public instruction. The normal school was opened in January, 1870. It at once took a leading place among the normal schools of the country. It has maintained this position by adhering strictly to its purpose—the preparation of teachers—by presenting a well organized course of study, by keeping step with all really progressive movements, and by employing a strong faculty. A recent law places the normal school at the head of the accredited schools of the state.

Hanover College. On January 1, 1827, Rev. John Finley Crowe opened Hanover Academy in a log cabin where the Presbyterian church in Hanover now stands. He was requested to do this by the Presbytery of Salem. In the latter part of December, 1828, Hanover Academy was regularly incorporated by the legislature. In 1829 the new school was formally adopted by the Synod of Indiana. One of the conditions of this adoption was the opening of a theological department. Such a department was maintained until 1840, when it was moved to New Albany. Three years later it was moved to Chicago, where it formed the beginning of what is now known as McCormick Theological Seminary. In 1833 a new act of incorporation granted by the legislature changed the institution to Hanover College. For a number of years after its opening as a college, it attempted to operate under what was known

as the manual labor system. Students were expected to work at some trade. A number of different shops were opened in connection with the school. The attempt, however, ended in failure and produced a debt which embarrassed the institution for a number of years. The college is now enjoying a period of prosperity. It has educated many men who have won distinction in various fields of work. The college has been co-educational since 1880.

Wabash College. In 1832 five Presbyterian home missionaries met at the little village of Crawfordsville, and after considering the needs of the church and people, decided to establish a school. Judge Williamson Dunn, who had donated the ground for Hanover College, also donated the ground for this new school. The school was named the Wabash Manual Labor College and Teachers' Seminary. It was opened in December, 1833, under the charge of Caleb Mills, with twelve students in attendance. In 1834 the legislature was asked for a charter. After considerable trouble, a charter was secured, but it was not as liberal as it should have been, and hence did not give the institution the opportunity to grow that it ought to have had. In 1851 a new charter was received and the name of the institution changed to Wabash College. The institution has had an honorable history, and has always maintained a strong faculty and a well-balanced course of study. It has never admitted women to its courses.

Franklin College. In 1834 the Indiana Baptist Educational Society was organized in Indianapolis. A year later this Society decided to establish at Franklin an institution to be known as the Indiana Baptist Manual Labor Institute. The school was opened in the fall of 1837, under the direction of Rev. Albert Freeman Tilton. The school received a legislative charter in 1844, and changed its name to Franklin College. Although this college had many teach-

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TERRE HAUTE

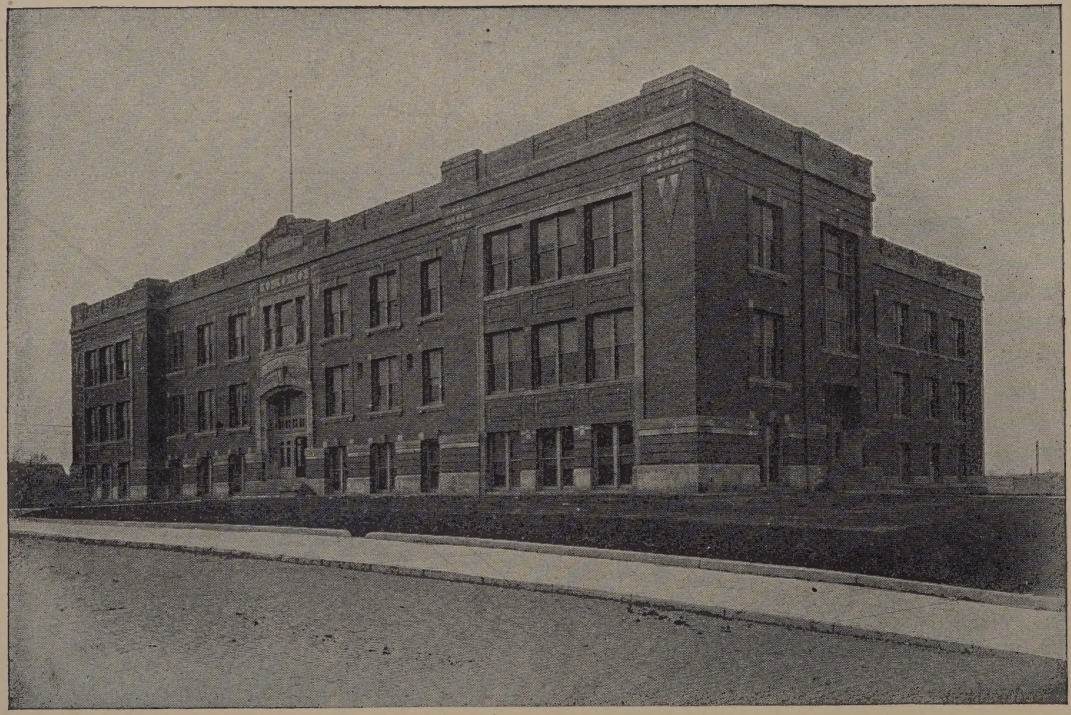
ers of high repute, it met great financial difficulties. During the Civil War practically the entire student body enlisted, and the college was closed for several years. After the war it was reopened, but it still had great difficulty in securing funds. In January, 1872, the work of the college was suspended. From this suspension, a reorganization resulted. The college reopened in September, 1872, with Rev. W. T. Stott as President. Under Dr. Stott and his successors it has had continued growth. It is now in a prosperous condition, and exerts a strong and helpful influence.

De Pauw University. In 1832 the Indiana Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church considered the matter of founding a conference seminary or college. Early in 1837 a legislative charter was granted for the establishment of the Indiana Asbury University. The university was named in honor of Bishop Asbury, who was one of the most illustrous pioneer bishops of the church. It was located at Greencastle, and instruction was begun in 1836, in a rented house, under the direction of Rev. Cyrus Nutt. The first president of the University was Bishop Matthew Simpson, who served from 1839 to 1843. In 1884, by proper legal action, the name of the institution was changed to De Pauw University. The new name was in honor of W. C. De Pauw, of New Albany, who made liberal gifts of his wealth to the university. Under the impetus of its new endowment, the university had a rapid growth. It has had many strong men in its faculty, and has been unusually fortunate in its graduates, many of whom have distinguished themselves in public service.

Earlham College. Among the early settlers in Indiana were many Friends. Their interest in education led them to found schools of both primary and academic grades. As early as 1837, the Indiana Yearly Meeting took steps to

found a high grade boarding school, which should be the head of the other schools under the control of the church. The school was opened at Richmond in 1847. Both sexes were admitted. This was unusual for that time. In 1859 the school was chartered as Earlham College. Since 1879 the institution has been under the joint control of the Indiana and Western Yearly Meetings, two large bodies of orthodox Friends. The institution maintains courses of high rank. It has exerted a wholesome influence on practical science instruction. Earlham was the first college in Indiana to make a collection of material in geology and natural history for college instruction, the first to establish an astronomical observatory, and the first to open a chemical laboratory for the use of students.

University of Notre Dame. One of the great schools under Catholic control is the University of Notre Dame du Lac, near South Bend. The land now occupied by this institution was purchased from the government by the Very Rev. S. T. Badin, in 1830. Father Badin soon transferred the title to the Bishop of Vincennes. In response to the Bishop's call for missionaries to labor in Indiana, Father E. F. Sorin and six associates, all members of the Congregation of the Holy Cross, volunteered. They left France in August, 1841. The journey was long and tedious. For lack of means they crossed the ocean as steerage passengers. The trip from New York to Vincennes required twenty-five days of tedious and tiresome travel. Their first intention was to establish a school at St. Peter's Mission, in Daviess county, but the matter was settled otherwise by the Bishop. He deeded to Father Sorin the land on the St. Joseph, which Father Badin had transferred to him a few years before. With a few hundred dollars presented by the Bishop, and the scant supplies they could gather together, the little band of enthusiasts made their journey through the wilderness to



A MODERN INDIANA HIGH SCHOOL

their new home. Work was begun at once. Land was cleared and a few small buildings erected. The university received its charter in 1844. In June of that year the first college building was occupied, and in August the first commencement was held. Previous to June the students had been taught in a farm house. From these simple beginnings has developed one of the largest and most beautiful college plants in the country, and an institution of learning that ranks with the best.

St. Meinrad's. At St. Meinrad, in Dubois county, is located St. Meinrad's Abbey. This institution is under the control of the Benedictine Order. It is made up of three distinct departments with their separate faculties: St. Meinrad's Seminary, St. Meinrad's College, and Jasper College. The first two are exclusively for ecclesiastical students, and are located at St. Meinrad. The last named is for secular students, and is located at Jasper. The institution had its beginning in 1852. It is located in a beautiful and retired part of the state, where the advantages for quiet and peaceful meditation are unexcelled.

Oldenburg. At Oldenburg, the Catholic church maintains an institution for the preparation of priests. This institution is in charge of the Franciscan Fathers, which is one of the largest religious congregations of the Roman Catholic Church. The Oldenburg House of Studies, known as the Theologicate, was opened to students in 1874. Practically all the studies are carried on in Latin. All students received here are members of the Franciscan Order.

Butler College. Because of interest aroused and action taken by the Christian churches of Indiana, a charter was granted by the legislature in 1849 which went into effect January, 1850, for the establishment of Northwestern Christian University. The doors to this school were first opened November 1, 1855. In 1875 the institution was

moved from its location on College avenue, Indianapolis, to Irvington. The name of the institution was later changed to Butler University, in honor of Ovid Butler who had given time and money to the school. The institution has always stood for high standards, and has exerted a wholesome influence upon the educational work of the state.

Rose Polytechnic. Chauncey Rose was one of the earliest settlers in what is now Terre Haute. He played an important part in the development of that city. Late in life he became interested in the establishment of a school devoted to the technical training of young men. His plans finally crystallized, and in 1874 a school was incorporated under the name of Terre Haute School of Industrial Science. A year later, the board of managers decided to change the name to the Rose Polytechnic Institute. Mr. Rose himself protested earnestly against a change of name, but the desire of his associates was so strong and unanimous that they overruled him. The bequest of Mr. Rose was allowed to accumulate until 1883, when the first students were admitted. The first graduating class was that of 1885. Rose Polytechnic at once took an important place among the technical schools of the country. Its equipment, its teachers and its course of study have always been of the very highest grade.

Other Colleges. There are a number of small colleges in different parts of the state, all of which are doing good work and contributing their share to the intellectual and moral development of the state's citizenship. Among these may be named Moore's Hill College, under the control of the Methodist church; Taylor University at Upland, under the control of the local preachers of the Methodist Episcopal church; Goshen College, under the control of the Mennonites; North Manchester College, under the control

STUDYING SOIL FORMATION IN A CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL

of the Church of the Brethren; Central College at Huntington, under the control of the United Brethren in Christ (old constitution); Concordia College, at Ft. Wayne, under the control of the German Lutherans; Union Christian College, at Merom, under the control of the Christians (New Light); Oakland City College, under the control of the General Baptists; and the Indiana Central University, at Indianapolis, under the control of the United Brethren church.

Education of Women. Indiana has no institution of college grade exclusively for women. Nearly all the colleges of the state are co-educational, and women take advantage of the opportunities offered in these institutions. There are a number of schools for girls, many of which are of more advanced grade than ordinary secondary schools. Very valuable schools of this sort are under the control of various orders of sisters of the Catholic church. Some of the prominent ones are located at Oldenburg, Terre Haute, South Bend, Indianapolis, LaFayette and Fort Wayne.

Valparaiso University. In September, 1873, there came to Valparaiso, Indiana, a young man who, on the 16th of that month, opened a school in the old seminary buildings, with four instructors and thirty-five students present. The plan of H. B. Brown, the founder of this school, was quite different from the plans in operation in the older schools of the state. He believed that the school should be open throughout the entire year, and that the courses should be arranged so that a student could enter at any time and find work adapted to his needs. The institution has increased from the thirty-five on the entrance day, to an annual attendance of more than five thousand five hundred. It has grown from the Northern Indiana Normal School, the name it took at its opening, to a great university,

with colleges of music, art, law, medicine, dentistry and liberal arts, as well as a completely organized normal school. The institution has no endowment. It has developed its splendid plant and equipment and maintained a high course of instruction solely from the tuition receipts. The school occupies an important place in the educational affairs of the entire country, and has contributed much to the development of Indiana.

Independent Normals. The independent normal school has been an important factor in the training of teachers and in the education of the citizens of Indiana. As noted above, Valparaiso University was founded as a normal school. Other normal schools in the state that are doing good work, are the Central Normal at Danville, Marion Normal at Marion, and Tri-State College at Angola. The Southern Indiana Normal at Mitchell had a flourishing existence for a number of years, but some years ago a fire destroyed its buildings, and it was not reopened.

CHAPEL, BOYS' SCHOOL, PLAINFIELD

CHAPTER XIX

INDIANA DURING THE CIVIL WAR

PART I

Causes of the Civil War. The events leading up to the Civil War are matters of national instead of state history, but it is necessary to review them here before taking up Indiana's part in the great struggle.

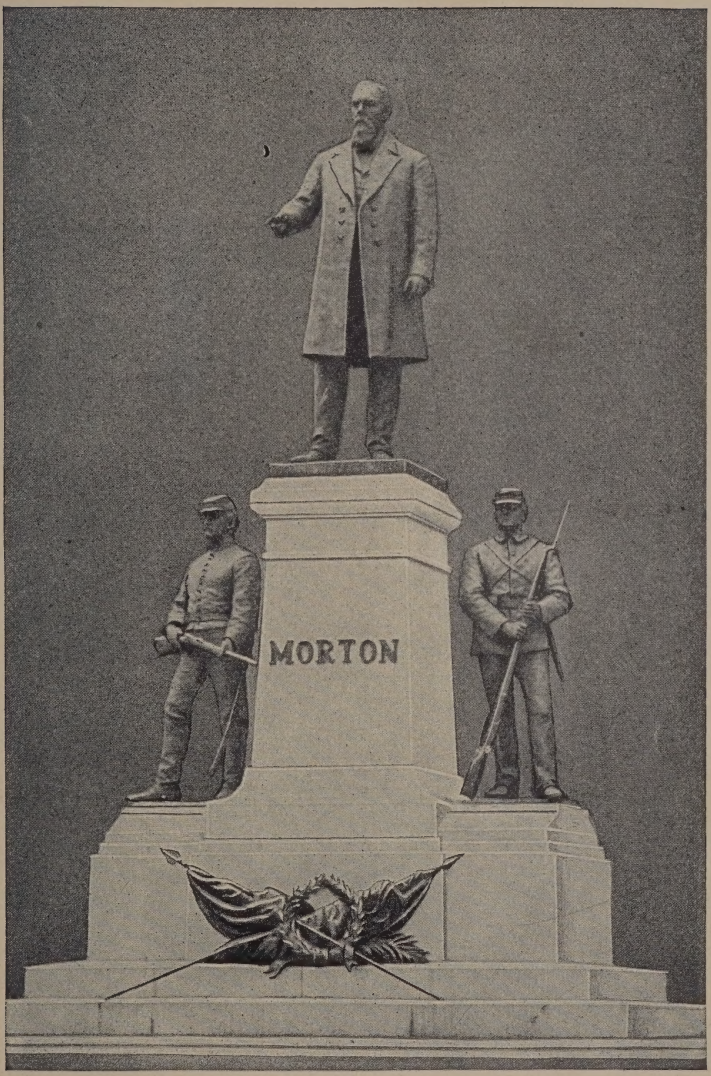
In the northern states the sentiment against slavery had grown constantly stronger since the early part of the nineteenth century. This difference in attitude between North and South had resulted in a breach between the two sections. This breach grew steadily wider as the slavery question became the one great national issue.

Conditions were such during the presidential campaign of 1860, that the entire country realized a crisis was approaching. The slavery question was the chief cause for the political upheaval in which the country found itself, but this political disturbance was great enough to absorb public attention and to make people partially forget that slavery was at the bottom of it.

The new Republican party was the direct outgrowth of the slavery issue, and the one important feature of its campaign platform was opposition to the extension of slavery. Abraham Lincoln, a man then practically unknown, was the candidate put forward by the new party for the Presidency. Lincoln was elected, and his election hastened a crisis that would have come sooner or later under any conditions. Within a month

after his election was announced to the country, South Carolina gave out her determination to secede from the Union. Buchanan was still President. He seemed unable to face the situation, and afraid to act. Six other states, Mississippi, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Alabama and Florida, followed South Carolina's example, and the whole of the South began active preparations for war. The entire country was in a turmoil. The South was united in its views on the question of secession. In the North opinion differed. The President announced in a message to Congress that a state had no right to secede, but Congress seemed powerless, because the constitution did not specifically give it the right to force a seceding state back into the Union.

Oliver Perry Morton. It was while the country was in this uncertain state of mind that Indiana's great War Governor, Oliver Perry Morton, made a speech that thrilled the North, and probably did as much to determine the Northern attitude as any utterance preceding the firing of the Confederate guns on Fort Sumter. At the time, Morton had not assumed the Governor's chair. He was elected as Lieutenant Governor on the ticket with Henry S. Lane. Three days after he was inaugurated Governor, Lane resigned to become United States senator from Indiana, and Morton became Governor. This plan had been prearranged, dependent, of course, on the success of the Republican party in the state election. Morton was dissatisfied with the arrangement, and would have preferred to go to the senate. If Morton had gone to the senate, and Lane remained Governor, it is hard to tell what might have been the outcome. Lane, though an excellent senator, is seldom heard of today, while Morton became a great national figure, and has come down in history as the greatest of the war-time governors. Lincoln found him one of



STATUE OF MORTON, INDIANAPOLIS

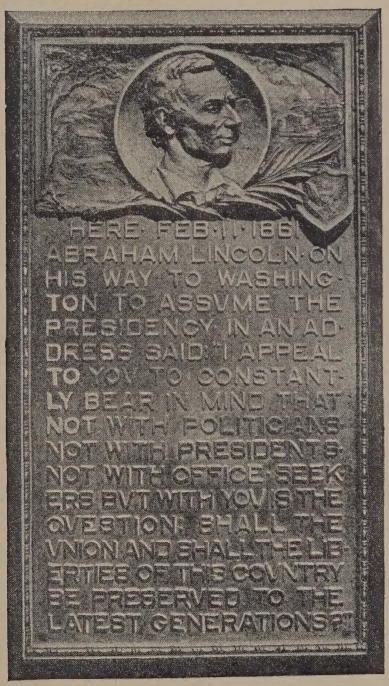
the few men with whom he cared to consult, and sent for Morton many times during the course of the war. In the dark days when internal trouble racked Indiana, he felt such implicit trust in Morton that he left in his hands the settlement of treasonable plots, that, if successful, would have struck to the very heart of the Union. Lincoln and Morton were two great men who understood each other and worked together in harmony. They had much in common, both in character and experience. Had Morton been placed in Lincoln's position, he would probably have been equally great. He was a man of whom every Indianian should be proud, for during the Civil War he piloted the state through a sea of difficulties such as beset no other state loyal to the Union.

Morton's Speech. Morton's famous speech, which was delivered at a meeting held in Indianapolis on November 22, 1860, was the first clear, public statement of the questions confronting the nation since the specter of secession had become a grim reality. Morton thought clearly and logically, and saw into the future as few men of his time. Speaking of secession, he said: "If an attempt at secession be made, there is but one of two courses to be pursued, either to allow the seceding state peaceably to go and set up for herself an independent government, or else, by the police or military power of the United States, to compel an observance of the laws, and submission to constitutional obligations." Morton then went on to show that if secession were permitted "instead of having a nation—one mighty people—we have but a collection and combination of thirty-three independent and petty states. . . . Secession would become the remedy for every state and sectional grievance, real or imaginary, and in a few short years we should witness the total dissolution of that mighty republic which has been the hope of the world. . . .

If South Carolina gets out of the Union, I trust it will be at the point of the bayonet, and after our best efforts have failed to compel her submission to the laws. Better concede her independence to force, to revolution, than to right and principle." Concerning the possibility of war, he said: "Seven years is but a day in the life of a nation, and I would rather come out of a struggle at the end of that time, defeated in arms and conceding independence to successful revolution, than purchase present peace by the concession of a principle that must inevitably explode the nation into small and dishonored fragments." He concluded by saying: "I will not stop to argue the right of secession. The whole question is summed up in this proposition: 'Are we one nation, one people, or thirty-three nations, thirty-three independent and petty states?' The statement of the proposition furnishes the answer. If we are one nation, then no state has a right to secede. Secession can only be the result of successful revolution. I answer the question for you, and I know that my answer will find a response in every true American heart—that we are one people, one nation, undivided and indivisible."

Lincoln at Indianapolis. Lincoln stopped at Indianapolis on his way to the inauguration. The Governor, members of the legislature, and a great number of citizens turned out to welcome the new President. The crowd gathered outside the hotel where Lincoln was stopping, the Old Bates House, which stood where the Claypool Hotel now stands. Morton, Lincoln, and several other prominent men appeared on the balcony, and Morton made a brief speech of welcome. He sought to draw Lincoln out, for the new President had not spoken since his election on his policy and intentions. Lincoln's words were few, but they were the most definite he had yet spoken. He complimented the people on their loyalty

and then told them: "It is your business to rise up and preserve the Union and liberty for yourselves, and not for me. I am but an accidental instrument to serve but for a limited time, and I appeal to you again to bear constantly in mind that with you, and not with politicians, not with



LINCOLN TABLET ON CLAYPOOL HOTEL, INDIANAPOLIS

Presidents, not with office seekers, but with you is the question, 'Shall the Union, shall the liberties of this country be preserved to the latest generation?' "

Attack on Fort Sumter. On the 12th of April, 1861, Fort Sumter, in Charleston Harbor, was attacked by the

Confederates. The news was received with great excitement throughout the country, for the attack was the first open act of hostility, and made war certain. Feeling ran very high. Everywhere people crowded the streets eager for news of the seventy loyal men who were holding the fort in the face of the bombardment of southern shells. The stars and stripes appeared on public buildings, churches, schools and private houses, and the flag had a new and more sacred meaning to the crowds who thronged the streets than it had ever possessed for them before. When the news of Sumter's fall was flashed through the country, both North and South realized that war was on, and that it would be no short or easy struggle.

Indiana Offers Volunteers. The President called for seventy-five thousand volunteers on the 15th. That same day, before the call had been issued, Governor Morton had offered President Lincoln ten thousand men on behalf of the state of Indiana.

Military Condition of Indiana. Let us stop to consider what was the condition of Indiana, in a military way at the outbreak of the Civil War. The regular militia, well-organized and supplied back in the days of Indian fighting and the War of 1812, had ceased to exist during the long period of peace, and the military spirit seemed to have died down. When the war with Mexico was declared in 1846, this military spirit revived, and three regiments of Indiana volunteers were sent to the front, to be followed later by two additional regiments. But the militia system, once so important, was dead before the outbreak of the Mexican War, and the revival of military spirit at that time was not sufficient to reëstablish it in its old time strength. In 1852, an act was passed for the organization of militia by congressional districts, but nothing came of it, and the opening of the Civil War found the state without

military organization, and with a state treasury sadly depleted.

Response to the Call for Volunteers. In spite of these unfavorable conditions, large numbers of men responded to Governor Morton's call for volunteers. The day following the call, 500 men arrived in Indianapolis and went into camp at the old fair grounds. Within a week, 12,000 men had enlisted. The secretary of war had fixed Indiana's quota at six regiments, comprising 4,683 men. Within a week almost three times that number had responded. The military spirit so long dormant, was aroused to its full force, and every able-bodied man seemed eager to hasten to the defense of his country.

Special Session of the Legislature. Morton knew that all these men would be needed. He at once offered the Government six additional regiments, without condition as to term of service. But to equip these additional regiments, money was necessary for the purchase of arms and uniforms. A special session of the legislature was called, and convened on the 24th of April. In his message to the legislators, Governor Morton said: "We have passed from the field of argument to the solemn fact of war, which exists by the act of the seceding states. The issue is forced upon us and must be accepted. . . I recommend that one million dollars be appropriated for the purchase of arms and ammunition, and for the organization of such portions of the militia as may be deemed necessary for the emergency, that a militia system be devised and enacted, looking chiefly to volunteers, which shall insure the greatest protection to the state and the greatest unity and efficiency of the force to be employed. . . . that suitable provision be made by the issue of the bonds of the state, or otherwise, for raising the money herein recommended to be appropriated; and that all necessary and proper legis-

lation be had to protect the business, property and citizens of the state, in the circumstances under which they are placed." The legislature, which in the first year of the war was loyal to the Governor and eager to carry out his wishes, responded by voting more than twice the amount for which he had asked.

Morton's War Policy. Morton himself was desperately in earnest about the war. He was farseeing enough to realize how serious it was, and he would have at once placed an overwhelming force in active service and made the war "instant and terrible." He organized Camp Morton, provided for the recruiting, drill and equipment of soldiers, and the securing of the necessary arms and munitions of war.

Indianapolis a Military Center. The importance of Indianapolis as a military center was due largely to Governor Morton. The camp named in his honor became a recruiting place for soldiers from near-by states, as well as from our own state, and organized regiments from other states were often quartered at Indianapolis before being sent to the front.

The Arsenal at Indianapolis. In the first days of the war the Governor put some of the recruits to work making bullets in hand molds, and then had them packed for use by the Indiana regiments. Indiana was remote from the source of such supplies, so the plan of establishing an arsenal, suggested by this small beginning, recommended itself to the Government. This arsenal became one of the most important in the country, and employed several hundred men in the manufacture of arms and ammunition.

Greatness of Morton as a War Governor. Governor Morton continued to be the great figure in Indiana throughout the war. In the early days of the great national

upheaval it was Morton who made of Indiana a patriotic and military center, and in the later days, as we shall see, when internal dissension, disloyalty and even treason threatened the very allegiance of the state to the Union, it was Morton who brought it through in safety.

CHAPTER XX

INDIANA DURING THE CIVIL WAR

PART II

Response to the Call of 1862. In 1862 the President issued a call for three hundred thousand men, and made provisions for a draft from the militia, if the quotas of the several loyal states were not filled by August 16. The draft was a system whereby men were chosen by lot to serve in the army. It has never been a popular way of raising armies, always creating opposition, and sometimes causing riots. Indiana's quota, under the call, was 21,250 men. All but 3,003 of the number enlisted, and these were drafted from the 334 townships of the state that had not supplied their share of volunteers. Indiana was in reality 8,008 men ahead of the sum of all her quotas since the beginning of the war, but the Governor felt it wise to send our full share under Lincoln's call, and furthermore felt it advisable to draft these men from the townships that had not responded properly to the call for volunteers.

Southern Sympathizers. The question arises, why had these townships been backward in supplying men to fight for the preservation of the Union? Unfortunately not all of the citizens of Indiana were loyal. In certain sections there were found those whose sympathies were with the Confederate cause, either openly or secretly. A secret organization known as the Knights of the Golden Circle, the object of which was to aid the Southern cause, flourished throughout the half of Indiana south of the National

Road. In those townships where the organization was strongest, few men enlisted in the Union Army, and efforts were constantly being made to persuade those who had enlisted to desert. The large number of deserters from among Indiana troops, 10,846, may be partially accounted for in this manner.

Reasons for Sympathy with the South. We must not judge too harshly these men whose sympathies were with the South. It would have been very remarkable if, with her population of 1,350,000, many of them Southern born, Indiana had not had many citizens whose sympathies were with the Confederate cause. Others there were who would have let the southern states secede peacefully, and who because they did not believe in the war, weakened in their allegiance to the Government. The disheartening defeats, the "hard times" into which the war plunged the country, the drafting of men for service, and the heavy taxation necessary to carry on the war, all combined to weaken the loyalty of those who did not possess the vision to foresee, that without the preservation of the Union the separate states would be weak and helpless, and the power of the nation completely broken.

Danger from Disloyal Element. This dissatisfied element, combined with those of southern sympathies, formed a larger number than one would ever suppose. They became a grave menace to the Union cause, for while the Union trembled in the balance, the slightest help to the Confederate side threatened to destroy it.

Disloyal Secret Societies. The disloyalty in the state found its expression in federated secret societies, which at different times were known under the names of the Knights of the Golden Circle, the American Knights, and the Sons of Liberty. These organizations were far-reaching and powerful, and though strongest in the states of the Middle

West, were represented throughout most of the North. The Order of the Knights of the Golden Circle was organized in the South before the war. The original object was the establishment of a great empire on the Gulf, based on slavery, and in which the Southern States were to be united with Mexico. The organization spread into the North sometime during the first year of the war, but did not begin to gain strength until 1862, and did not attain its largest membership until 1864. It was represented, to the man asked to join it, as a political club. The candidate was first admitted to the "Outer Temple," which was wholly political, and later he was carefully sounded, and if he was found to hold the "right" views, was admitted to the "Inner Temple," where the object of aiding the South was openly avowed. In addition to the Outer and Inner Temples, there were various high degrees and orders. The rituals and regalia were elaborate, and the whole thing was designed to appeal to simple, credulous minds, and by overawing them, bring them to accept the treasonable tenets for which the "Knights" really stood.

Strength of Secret Societies in Indiana. The strength of these organizations has been much exaggerated. It is true, however, that at one time they presented a real menace to the Union cause, for the government had enough to do subduing the rebellious states, without taking the added burden of hunting and punishing those who secretly worked as enemies. In Indiana the organization was at times very strong. In the years 1863 and 1864, a memberhsip of 40,000 was claimed. Men of local prominence were often enrolled, and members were found even among the state officers.

Object of Secret Societies. The object of the secret society, under its various names, remained the same. It favored slavery and the right of secession, and opposed the

war and the measures of Lincoln's administration. Soldiers in the Union Army were encouraged to desert, and found shelter in the strongholds of the organization after they had deserted. Communication with Southern leaders, and aid to the Confederate cause continued until the close of the war. Public opinion was influenced through disloyal newspapers controlled by members of the organization. The state legislature was at one time made up largely of the disloyal element, and sought in every way to discredit Governor Morton, and undermine the strength of the state's aid to the Union cause.

Plans for Morgan's Raid. Several uprisings were planned by the Knights of the Golden Circle, but none of them ever took place. Morgan's famous raid into Indiana was partly due to the encouragement given by the presence of so many southern sympathizers in the state. The plan was to raise a large force of the Knights of the Golden Circle, perhaps thirty or forty thousand, who were to move under Morgan's command on Indianapolis. The seven thousand Confederate prisoners confined in Camp Morton were to be released and armed, and the whole force was to occupy the city, establish a provisional government, and either join Indiana to the Southern Confederacy, or, with Illinois and other near-by states, form a Northwestern Confederacy. Of course the plan failed, but Morgan did invade Indiana soil, and his raid caused great excitement, not alone in the state, but throughout the North.

Raid on Newburg. This raid was the first important invasion of Indiana by a hostile force during the war. Other raids of minor importance had been made. In July, 1862, a band of guerillas raided Newburg, in Warrick County. The leader of the band was Adam R. Johnson, who had previously served in the Confederate Army. A hospital had been established in the town, and eighty or

ninety sick and wounded soldiers were being cared for. In the hospital building were stores of food and other supplies and the muskets and ammunition of the local militia. Johnson had for sometime been in communication with the disloyal citizens of the town, and had secured their aid. On the 18th of July, he crossed the river just at noon, and surprised the town. The hospital was seized and the supplies stored there were secured. The soldiers in the hospital were required to sign paroles of honor, but these were never claimed as valid by the Confederate authorities, and were not held so by those who had signed them. Johnson's men then set to work to pillage the town. Houses were broken open and robbed, and everything that could be carried across the river was taken. After the flight of the marauders the indignant citizens attacked and killed two of the men who had given Johnson the information that had led to the raid, and during his presence in the village had helped in the pillaging.

Hines' Raid. In June, 1863, a small body of men belonging to Morgan's command, made a raid through Perry, Orange, Crawford, Washington and Harrison counties. The force numbered sixty-two men, under the command of Captain Thomas H. Hines. At first they met with no resistance, for they represented themselves as belonging to the Union Army, and acting under proper orders from General Boyle, of the district of Kentucky, who had sent them out in search of deserters. In this guise they secured a number of horses, giving in pay vouchers on the federal quartermaster at Indianapolis. Before they reached Paoli their disguise had been discovered, and a force was ready to receive them. Hines made a detour, but encountered another armed force. This latter body of men was greatly outnumbered by the Confederates, who captured and robbed them. The position of Hines now

became so dangerous that he secured a guide and pressed toward the Ohio. A force of militia pursued him, and on Blue River Island, in the Ohio, three miles above Leavenworth, the Confederates were forced to surrender. Hines alone escaped, swimming his horse across the river.

Morgan's Raid. At this time Morgan was in Kentucky making a rapid flight through the state, and causing much excitement. He left Alexandria, Tennessee, on June 11, 1863, hoping to draw some of the Union forces in pursuit of him and away from Bragg's army. In his flight through Kentucky he met with little opposition, and though he had not intended to invade Indiana, the ease with which he had progressed so far, and the encouragement given him by the Knights of the Golden Circle, led him to disobey the orders of his superior officer, and push the raid into Indiana. His force numbered 2,460 men, quite large enough, he thought, to accomplish his purpose.

He Reaches the Ohio. Morgan arrived at Brandenburg, a small town situated on the Kentucky side of the Ohio River, about fifty miles below Louisville, on July 8. He captured two river steamers to carry his men across to the Indiana side, but met with some difficulty when he attempted to make the crossing.

Attempt to Prevent Morgan from Crossing. News of Morgan's coming had reached the Indiana side before his arrival at Brandenburg. A piece of artillery was brought from Leavenworth and stationed directly opposite Brandenburg, on the Indiana side. One hundred of the Harrison county militia stood guard to prevent the Confederates from crossing. A few shots were exchanged, and then Morgan's artillery opened an accurate and deadly fire which forced the few defenders to retire.

Morgan's Crossing Interrupted. Morgan at once began to transfer his men to the Indiana shore. As soon

as enough men had landed they pursued the militia, who fell back in good order toward Corydon. While this retreat and pursuit were going on, and directly after the return of the two steamers from their first trip to the Indiana side, a small boat "tightly boarded up with tiers of heavy oak planking," ran rapidly down the river, and opened fire, first on Brandenburg, and then on the force pursuing the militia. Morgan's position was made very perilous, for his force was divided, and while the gunboat remained he could not unite it. But after an hour's firing, the gunboat ran back up the river, and Morgan began sending the remainder of his force across in great haste. Later, the gunboat returned with two armed transports. Morgan's batteries on the heights above Brandenburg opened fire, and though they did not damage the boats, the officer in charge of the gunboat soon retired with his little fleet, claiming that the boats were bullet but not shell proof. Morgan at once crossed over with the remainder of his force, and they encamped for the night near the river, pressing on toward Corydon early in the morning.

The Men of Indiana Rise to Defend Their State. During the raid through Kentucky, Governor Morton had sent all available troops out of the state for the defense of Louisville, for it was supposed that Morgan would strike there before attempting to cross into Indiana. When the fact of Morgan's invasion of Indiana soil became known, great anxiety was felt by the Governor and the people of the state as a whole. We were stripped of national troops, and only the county militia, known as the "Legion," remained. For these county organizations the arms were insufficient, and the men themselves—usually old men, young boys, and others unable to go to war—were poorly drilled and ignorant of military discipline. Against seasoned veterans, such as Morgan's men, they could make

BUILDING USED AS PRISON BY MORGAN, CORYDON

but little defense. General Boyle, in command of the District of Kentucky, ignored Morton's demands for regular troops, so, on the 9th, the Governor issued a call to the men of Indiana to rise to the defense of their state. The Knights of the Golden Circle had planned an uprising to come to the aid of Morgan and his raiders. What happened was very different. The wave of loyalty that swept the state was like that at the beginning of the war. Within two days 20,000 men had been actually mustered at Indianapolis, and Governor Morton had notice of the organization and readiness of 45,000 more. What had happened was the gathering of 65,000 men in forty-eight hours!

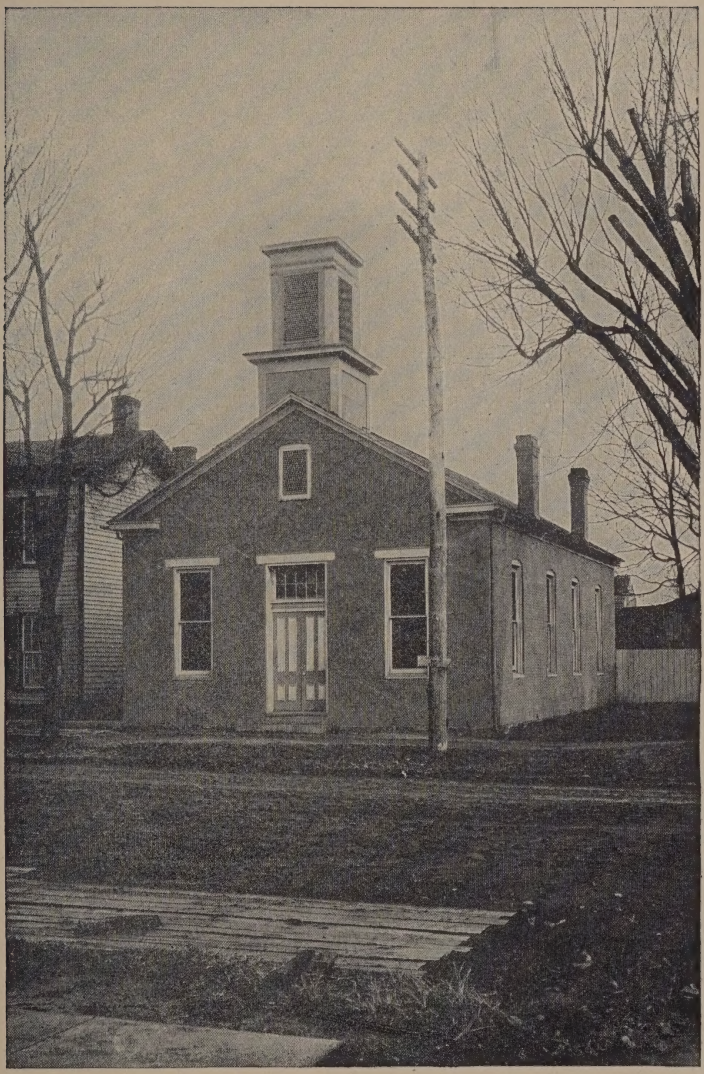
Morgan at Corydon. We left Morgan advancing on Corydon. The little body of militia and minute men who had resisted his landing fell back toward Corydon, and during the night constructed such defenses as they could. Messages were sent to General Boyle to forward reënforcements, but none came, and the little band of raw, untrained men, now numbering nearly 400, were left to face the invaders alone. They were attacked about a mile from Corydon by Morgan's force. They repelled this attack with courage and bravery, but were so greatly outnumbered that they were finally forced to surrender. Their loss was three killed, and several wouned. Morgan's loss was eight killed and thirty-three wounded. After this engagement Morgan pressed on into Corydon, where his men swarmed through the town, plundering without check or discrimination. Large sums of money, merchandise, and all the available horses of the citizens were carried off by the invaders.

He Marches Northward. From Corydon, Morgan marched northward toward Palmyra, where he halted for a two hours' rest. He then divided his force, the detach-

ment on the right making for Greenville, in Floyd County, and that on the left for Paoli, in Orange County.

At Salem. The forces then converged towards Salem, in Washington County, where they arrived on the morning of the 10th of July. They quickly dispersed the squads of undisciplined minute men who sought to prevent them from entering the town, and captured a company of the Washington County Legion, which arrived after they had taken possession. Morgan destroyed the railroad bridge at Salem, tore up some of the tracks, and burned the station. His men plundered to their heart's content. General Duke, who was one of Morgan's officers during the raid, says of the few hours spent in Salem: "The disposition to wholesale plunder exceeded anything that any of us had ever seen before. The great cause for apprehension which our situation might have inspired seemed only to make the men reckless. Calico was the staple article of appropriation. Each man who could get one, tied a bolt of it to his saddle, only to throw it away and get a fresh one at the first opportunity. They did not pillage with any sort of method or reason. It seemed to be mania, senseless and purposeless. One man carried a bird cage, with three canaries in it two days. . . . Although the weather was intensely warm, another, still, slung seven pairs of skates around his neck, and chuckled over his acquisition! They pillaged like boys robbing an orchard. I would not have believed that such a passion could have developed so ludicrously among any body of civilized men."

He Begins His Retreat. From Salem detachments were sent out towards Brownstown and Orleans. But Morgan found the roads toward the north were too perilous, and so left Salem in the afternoon, with the apparent single object of making for the Ohio, and putting that stream between himself and the enemies so rapidly gathering around him.



OLD CHURCH USED AS HOSPITAL BY MORGAN, CORYDON

Hobson in Pursuit. To the South was General Hobson with a force of 4,000 men. He had been following Morgan through Kentucky, and had crossed the Ohio at Brandenburg, only twenty-four hours after the invader. Hobson reached Corydon on the morning of the 10th of July, and after a brief halt pushed on toward Salem.

MAP OF MORGAN'S RAID

Morgan had meanwhile marched rapidly eastward through Canton and New Philadelphia, to Vienna, where he arrived at six o'clock in the evening. He passed on to Lexington and encamped for the night.

Morgan's Situation Desperate. On the morning of the 11th, Morgan moved out of Lexington towards Vernon. By tapping the telegraph wires and sending out

scouts, he had learned that troops were being collected to the south to prevent him reaching the Ohio. The roads toward Indianapolis were heavily guarded. The Knights of the Golden Circle were strangely quiet, and none rose to his aid. The situation began to look desperate.

At Vernon. Morgan came in sight of Vernon on the afternoon of the 11th. A force of 1,000 men was posted there, and Morgan did not care to attack it. He ordered Colonel Williams, who was in command, to surrender, but that officer refused and returned the answer to Morgan that he "was abundantly able to hold the place, and if General Morgan got it, he must take it by hard fighting." Morgan quietly withdrew the main body of his men, and the small number remaining made a demonstration which caused a slight skirmish. They then followed after the main body of the invaders, and the "Siege of Vernon" was ended.

At Dupont and Versailles. Morgan now proceeded to Dupont, eight miles southwest, where he burned two large railroad bridges and destroyed several freight cars and a large water tank. He moved on in the night to Versailles, where he captured three hundred minute and militiamen and took $5,000 of the county funds. Had Morgan spent the night at Vernon, he would have been attacked, for early the next morning Major General Wallace arrived by rail with a considerable force.

Difficulties Confronting Our Forces. As we look at it today, it seems strange that Morgan was not captured soon after he set foot on Indiana soil. But there were several difficulties confronting our state forces that we must take into consideration. The first was the lack of correct and consistent information. Morgan had small detachments thrown out in all directions, and from each village at which one of these detachments stopped came the report that Morgan and his men were sacking the place and terrorizing the

inhabitants. As a result, the reports indicated that Morgan was in several places—often widely apart—at the same time. A second difficulty lay in the impracticability of infantry transported by rail successfully pursuing a body of cavalry. No one knew where Morgan would turn up next, and when he was definitely located and troops rushed to the spot, he would be twenty-five miles distant by the time the troops arrived. A third difficulty lay in the use of raw troops suddenly called into service. They were never ready on time, the commissary was badly organized, and the whole body lacked the smooth working that characterizes the movements of veterans.

From Versailles to the Ohio Line. Morgan left Versailles at four o'clock on the afternoon of Sunday, the 12th. He passed on to Osgood, where he destroyed two bridges, tore up the railroad tacks and did other damage. He then followed along the old Ohio and Mississippi railroad, through Pierceville to Milan, destroying bridges and other property as he went. After marching far into the night, the main body reached Sunman's Station, and halted to rest. But some 2,500 militia were encamped near by, and Morgan prudently retired to a safe distance, where he spent the night. He hurried on early in the morning toward the Ohio line. He passed through Harmon's Station, Van Weddon's Station, and Weisburg, destroying railroad bridges and tracks, and doing much damage. Passing on through Hubbell's Corner, New Alsace, Dover, and Logan, Morgan's advance reached Harrison, Ohio, about noon.

Pursuit and Surrender. Morgan was pursued into Ohio by a body of cavalry under Colonel Shuler, who followed him as far as Batavia, Ohio, and then "finding the citizens able and ready to protect themselves, returned home." Morgan continued the raid, though his force grew constantly less through the capture of stragglers and

the desertion of the exhausted men. At last, on the 26th, near Salineville, Ohio, Morgan, with only 250 men left, was surrounded and forced to surrender. Meanwhile, the large number of men who had gathered for the defense of Indiana, had been discharged and sent home. Though they had not been able to corner the wily invader, they had prevented him from accomplishing his end, and their response to the call of the Governor remains one of the most patriotic events of the Civil War.

CHAPTER XXI

INDIANA DURING THE CIVIL WAR

PART III

Aid to the Soldiers. The Military Agency of the Indiana State Sanitary Commission grew out of the need of supplying our men at the front with those necessities and comforts which the government found it impossible to furnish. A great army had been hastily gathered, and the federal government was taxed to the utmost to supply this army with even the bare necessities. The women of the various states came to the relief of the soldiers by supplying them with many of the things necessary to their welfare and comfort. These supplies were collected by sanitary commissions and distributed by military agencies. In this manner the various states sent blankets, extra clothing, hospital supplies, etc., to the regiments at the front.

Appeal to Women of Indiana. Indiana, under the leadership of her great War Governor, was among the first states to take up this work. Governor Morton realized during the fall of 1861, that our men at the front must be supplied with overcoats and warm underclothing for the approaching winter. The overcoats were bought partly with state funds, and altogether twenty-nine thousand were sent to the Indiana troops. For the other needed supplies, the Governor appealed to the women of the state. On October 10th, 1861, he issued the following proclamation:—

"To the Patriotic Women of Indiana:

"When the President issued his first call to the loyal states for help, the government was unprovided with most, if not all, of the articles necessary to the comfort and health of soldiers in the camp and in the field. The women of Indiana were appealed to, and they supplied the deficiency in our state, with a generous alacrity which entitles them to the gratitude of the nation. The approach of winter makes it necessary to appeal to them again. Our volunteers, already suffering from exposure, against which they are inadequately protected, will soon be compelled to endure the utmost severity of winter, and multiplied dangers of disease. The government is doing all that can be done for them, but when all is done, they must still lack many comforts which men in ordinary pursuits enjoy, and which soldiers need above all others. Many articles of clothing, which to men with houses over their heads and warm fires always near, are hardly more than a luxury, to men with no protection but a tent, no bed but the ground, and whose duty must be performed under the unabated rigors of winter, are absolute necessities. They may save many lives which will surely be lost without them. These, the patriotic women of Indiana, it is hoped will supply." The Governor then went on to enumerate the articles needed, which included blankets, socks, woolen gloves or mittens, and woolen shirts and drawers. He closes by suggesting that "an hour of each day for a week given to the manufacture of the articles named will provide an ample store."

The Response. The response was immediate, and the supply of the needed articles which poured into the office of the Quartermaster-General of the state was much greater than the actual need.

The General Military Agency. The distribution of these supplies suggested the first organization to complete or

enlarge the government's provision for its soldiers. Agents were sent to the front to see to this work, and to render all possible aid to Indiana soldiers in the field, especially those who were sick or wounded. But the efforts of these agents alone were not sufficient. Early in 1862 the "General Military Agency of Indiana" was established, with a "General Military Agent," in the person of Dr. William Hannaman, at the head. To him these agents reported the needs of the soldiers, the names of the sick, the wounded, and the dead. With organization came greater efficiency. Nurses and surgeons were sent to the front, discharged soldiers were assisted in getting transportation home, letters were written for those in hospitals, and arrangements made for sending the dead home for burial. The agents, under flags of truce, even penetrated the enemy's lines and looked after the welfare of those who had been made prisoners.

The State Sanitary Commission. The "State Sanitary Commission" was organized as a means of procuring the supplies needed by the General Military Agency. This organization employed agents to go about the state and collect the supplies that the loyal women had busied themselves in making. Auxiliary societies, at which the women met to sew, scrape lint, make bandages, etc., were formed. With this complete organization, and the Sanitary Commission and Military Agency working together, great things were accomplished for the relief of the soldiers and for their comfort and well-being. In addition to the various articles contributed, the soliciting agents secured considerable donations of money, and the funds thus secured were used in various ways to relieve the soldiers. Such needed articles as were not donated, were bought, and the remaining money was used in transportation for discharged soldiers, the relief of destitute soldiers' families, and in such various other ways as the Military Commission might see fit.

Value of State Aid to Soldiers. The total value of goods contributed through the Sanitary Commission was $359,000.03. Cash to the amount of $247,570.75 was received. The entire contributions to the commission totaled $606,570.78. In addition to this, Indiana citizens gave $16,049.50 to the United States Sanitary Commission, which raises the sum given for the relief of soldiers to $622,620.28. Counties and townships in the state gave $4,566,898.06 for the local relief of soldiers' families, and soldiers discharged by reason of wounds or disease. This shows an outlay altogether of over five million dollars. We have every reason to be proud of the fame achieved by our soldiers in the war, but we have as good reason to be proud of the liberality and humanity of those who remained at home.

Situation in Indiana. The situation in Indiana during the Civil War was a peculiar one. She was a most loyal state, and yet within her borders many disloyal schemes were planned by treasonable secret societies. Fortunately none of the important plots were successful, but the state was kept in a constant turmoil by the continual internal dissension, caused by the presence of so many Southern sympathizers.

Reorganization of the Knights of the Golden Circle. In the fall of 1863, the Knights of the Golden Circle were reorganized under the name of the "Order of American Knights." This reorganization and change of name were brought about by the disasters which had befallen the Knights during the summer. The grand jury began an investigation of the order in the spring, and from unwilling witnesses, managed to extract the most important facts concerning it. Immediately following the failure of their ambitious plans in connection with Morgan's raid, the Knights were dealt a severe blow by the publication of the report of this grand jury investigation. Testimony proving

the existence of the order—a fact long denied—its secrecy, its possession of arms, and its military drills, was made public. Even the grips, passwords and signs of the order became public property. The leaders saw that a reorganization must be effected at once or the whole order would dissolve. So, with great secrecy, the Order of American Knights came into being. It was patterned after the Knights of the Golden Circle, but admission to the higher degrees was more difficult to obtain, and the oath of secrecy for all members was made more binding. With this new organization the leaders hoped that some of their ambitious plans might be put into effect.

Morton Well Informed. Governor Morton knew of the organization, and through spies and detectives kept himself informed of all the plots of the leaders. The men he employed were so skillful in their work that they were never suspected, and several of them attained high rank in the order. Through them Morton was so completely posted that he knew what the leaders were going to attempt even before their plans had been communicated to the rank and file of the members.

Morton's Life in Danger. Governor Morton was able, through his complete knowledge of their plans, to forestall any efforts the Knights might make to put these plans into effect. But the fact that he was always able to forestall them made his own position a very dangerous one. With little thought of self, he went on through the darkest days of the war, and the darkest in the history of our state, doing all he could to pilot the state government through the sea of difficulties that beset it. In the annals of the secret organizations we find many references to plans for assassinating Morton, and thus doing away with their one great enemy. On one occasion the Governor was fired upon when leaving the state house at the Market Street

door, but the bullet missed him, and the assassin fled without making a second attempt. Morton was repeatedly notified of plots against his life, and received many letters threatening assassination if he did not do certain things. To all these he paid little heed, and did not allow the threats to influence him in the discharge of his duty.

A Second Reorganization. In the spring of 1864, further exposures made another reorganization of the secret order necessary. The name was changed to the "Sons of Liberty," and slight modifications were made in the ritual and signs of recognition. The organization now attained its greatest membership, for the approaching election made it easy to gain members by representing the order to be a political club. Many of these neophytes knew nothing of the real objects and principles for which the order stood. Only such as were thought "safe" were made familiar with its inner secrets.

Great Uprising Planned. As the membership grew, more ambitious plans were formed by the leaders. The chief conspiracy of the entire war was the plan for a monster uprising to take place on August 16, 1864. The members of the Sons of Liberty in Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky and Ohio, were to arm themselves, and free and arm all the Confederate prisoners within the borders of their respective states. All of the forces were to combine with a Confederate army under Breckenridge, Buckner and Morgan, and occupy Kentucky, which was to be made the base of an extensive campaign. The plan was one of the last hopes of the Confederacy, and had it succeeded we can not say what would have been the result. Certainly the war would have been considerably prolonged. But in counting on the rank and file of the members of the secret order the leaders made a great mistake. The men who had joined the order under the impression that it was

wholly political, refused to have anything to do with it when they found themselves confronted with the frightful issues of actual war. So the great plan went to pieces for lack of support, and the order itself began to disintegrate.

The Treason Trials. Following close upon the failure of the uprising, came the discovery of large shipments of arms and ammunition to the grand commander of the order for the state of Indiana. This dignitary was arrested the last of August, and the arrest of five leaders followed shortly. The grand commander escaped and made his way to Canada, but the other five were tried and found guilty of treason, and four of them were sentenced to death. All of these men were subsequently pardoned by President Johnson.

Fiat Justitia. In closing the account of the internal difficulties which racked Indiana during the war, it is well to repeat our former statement, that we must not judge too harshly those whose sympathies were with the South. The rancor of Civil War days has passed. As we look back upon the struggle, we know that each side acted for what it thought was best. In Indiana the men who sided with the Confederacy met its defeat bravely, and several of the most prominent of the members of the secret organizations afterward became prominent citizens of the state, and served the people well in positions of public trust.

Indiana in the War. While those at home were engaged in the turmoil of domestic strife, Indiana soldiers in the field were bravely fighting to uphold the cause of the Union. The proportion of soldiers from Indiana was larger than that from most of her sister states. 74.1 per cent. of her men of military age took part in the War; that is, 74 out of every one hundred men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years. This was 6.87 per cent. of the total popu-

lation, or nearly seven, out of every one hundred. The total number of enlistments was 210,497. Indiana troops took part in 308 engagements, in seventeen different states. In many of these engagements they were especially distinguished for their bravery, and are commended in the official records.

Indiana Soldiers. Among individual Indiana soldiers we find several illustrious names. General Ambrose E. Burnside was a native of Union County, Indiana, though he enlisted from Rhode Island. In November, 1862, he was appointed the successor of McClellan in command of the Army of the Potomac. He was reluctant in accepting this important post, for he knew the task before him to be one requiring superhuman powers. The people and the government were clamoring for action, so Burnside made his campaign against Richmond in answer to this demand. The events of this disastrous campaign, culminating in the battle of Fredericksburg, are well known. Within a month afterward, Burnside gave up his command of the Army of the Potomac and fell back to a subordinate position, where he rendered the Union cause valuable service. General Lew Wallace, better known for his literary work than his military service, was nevertheless a brave soldier. At one time attempts were made to detract from General Wallace's military honor, because of his late arrival on the first day of the battle of Shiloh. He was fully cleared of all these charges, for the circumstances were shown to be beyond his control. Among other Indiana soldiers who distinguished themselves were, Brigadier General Benjamin Harrison, later President of the United States; Major General Alvin P. Hovey, later Governor of Indiana; Major General Walter Q. Gresham; and Brigadier General Pleasant A. Hackleman, who lost his life in the service, in October, 1862. Among non-commissioned officers and privates

many acts of exceptional courage and bravery have been recorded.

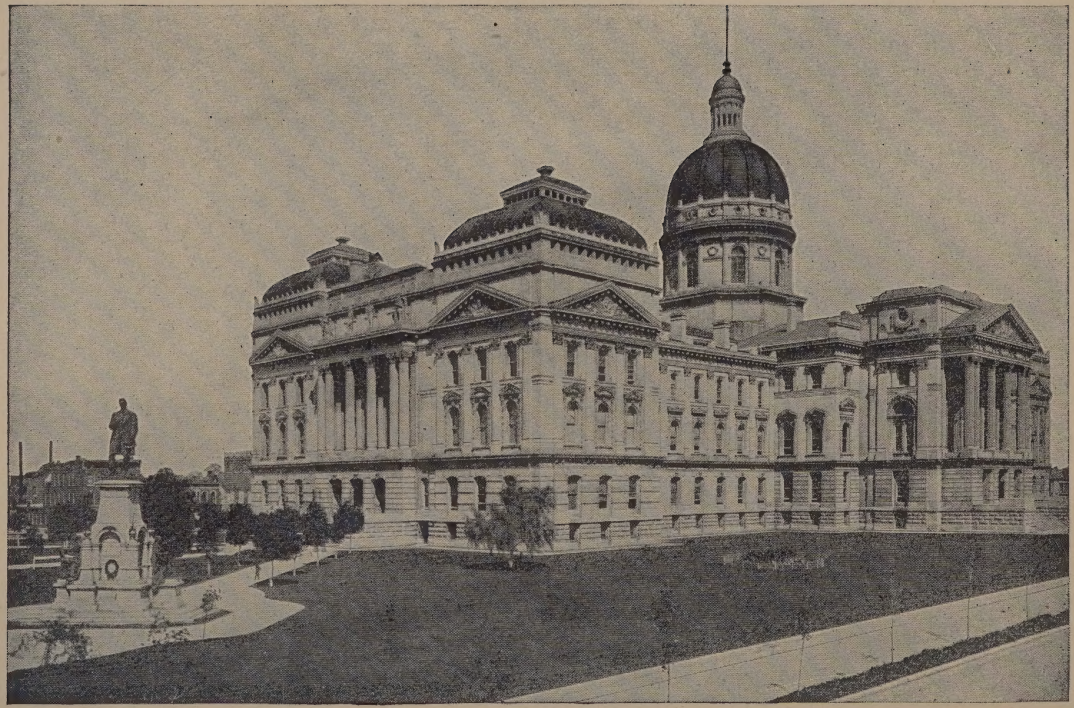
Our Debt to Morton. To one man Indiana owes her greatest war-time debt, and among the many men of the state whom the war brought to the front, he stands out as the great figure. This man was the Governor—Oliver Perry Morton.

CHAPTER XXII

MATERIAL GROWTH

The People. When Indiana became a state the estimated population was 70,000. By the census of 1910 the population was more than 2,700,000. Although Indiana is the thirty-seventh state in point of area, in population it is ninth. The growth in population has been steady. The early settlers came from the older eastern and southern states. Many Germans came either by way of Pennsylvania and Ohio, or directly from the Fatherland. Their descendants have become fused into the general mass. The same is true of all other nationalities, with the exception of very recent arrivals. The strength and solidarity of the state is due in a large measure to the common language and common interests of the people.

Roads. In the early days it was very difficult to get from one settlement to another. Products had but little value, because they could not be carried to market without great expense. The need of good roads early attracted the attention of the people. The earliest roads followed the old Indian trails. In some cases these trails, broadened and slightly improved, served as roads for many years. Modern engineers have not been able to find much better routes than the Indians had marked out centuries ago. In the early days of the state, many public roads were planned and a few built at the expense of the state. Under certain laws private corporations were allowed to build toll roads. These roads were kept up by the fees collected from those who used them. Such roads were



PRESENT STATE CAPITOL

never very popular with the settlers. Nearly all of them have now been bought by the people and made free. The state is well provided with good road material. In many parts of the state there are splendid beds of gravel. In nearly all of the counties good material is found in the stone with which nature has so bountifully furnished the state. Rapid development in the building of good roads has taken place in recent years. Indiana is now one of the first states in the Union in the number of miles of well built highways.

Railroads. The state is well supplied with steam railroads. The first railroad built in the state has already been noted. It connected Madison with Indianapolis. From that simple beginning there has been expansion, until today nearly every village, town and city is either on or within easy distance of a railroad. There are almost 8,000 miles of steam railroad in the state. Many of the transcontinental lines cross the state from east to west. There are also a number of railroads traversing the state from north to south. Only two counties, Ohio and Switzerland, are without railroads.

Electric Lines. In the matter of interurban electric railways, Indiana occupies an important place. The building of electric roads early attracted the attention of the financiers of the state. At present there are more than 1,500 miles of electric lines. Indianapolis is a great interurban center, lines radiating from it in every direction. These electric lines have done much to promote travel, improve trade, and develop the resources of the rural communities.

Forests. Originally Indiana was one of the most heavily wooded states in the whole country. Great forests of oak, walnut, poplar, hickory, maple, beech and ash were found in many parts of the state, particularly in the central and

southern parts. The prairie land was almost wholly in the northern part. In the preparation of the land for agriculture, many of these forests were cut down and most of the timber burned. The early mills cut only the very choicest logs. At the present time considerable attention is being given to the subject of forestry. Since less than fifteen per cent. of the original timber supply of the state remains, it is important that the present forests be properly cared for, and that large areas be reforested. The state board of forestry is engaged in a campaign of education and demonstration that will surely bring about needed changes.

Coal. The coal fields of Indiana are very extensive. Twelve counties are engaged in mining on a commercial scale. The yield at present amounts to more than 18,000,000 tons per year. The mines pay out in wages more than $15,500,000 annually. The fields are so extensive that the coal industry will continue to be an important factor in the development of the state for many years to come. Good laws and state supervision reduce the number of mine accidents and provide for the safety of the miners.

Building Stone. In some parts of Indiana, particularly in Monroe and Lawrence counties, great beds of fine building stone are found. Many quarries are in operation in these districts. Building stone of finest quality is quarried and shipped to various parts of the country. Numbers of fine public buildings all over the United States are built from Indiana limestone. It is a business which employs a great many men and which promises to grow and develop from year to year.

Gas and Oil. Natural gas and oil are two products which have added very greatly to the wealth of the state. When natural gas was discovered in the central-eastern part of the state, many manufacturing establishments were attracted by the cheap fuel. A period of great prosperity

ensued. Several cities doubled their population in a few years. Although gas has ceased to be found in sufficient quantities for large commercial purposes, many of the factories which were attracted to Indiana by the gas, have substituted other fuel, and remain great assets to the state. Indiana still produces a great deal of oil. Much of the original gas territory was found later to be oil territory, as

AN INDIANA STONE QUARRY

well. It is believed by those who have made a study of the subject, that considerable undeveloped oil territory still exists in the state. A new field has been discovered recently in the neighborhood of Oakland City.

Soil and Products. But of all her natural resources, the rich soil of the state is the greatest asset. This soil is adapted to the growing of various kinds of agricultural products. Under the lead of Purdue University and the

Purdue Experiment Station, farming has become a real science. The main agricultural products are corn, wheat, oats, hay and potatoes. The state ranks fourth in the amount of wheat grown, fifth in the amount of corn, sixth in the amount of oats, eighth in the amount of hay, and ninth in the amount of potatoes. The value of the products amounts to many millions of dollars. Farm property has increased rapidly in value, until now Indiana stands third in the average value per acre of all farm property.

Domestic Animals. The growing of domestic animals for the market has long been an industry of value and importance. Hogs, cattle, mules, horses and sheep are raised in large numbers. The rapid development of western cities has increased the demand for meat. The consequent increase in price has interested many farmers in the live-stock industry.

Manufacturing. Although Indiana is usually thought of as an agricultural state, its manufacturing industries are of very great importance. It is ninth in the value of its manufacturing output. These products consist mainly of wagons, carriages, plows, farm machinery, steel products, pianos and various sorts of hardware. It is indeed a great change from the crude homemade articles of the early nineteenth century, to the highly finished and almost perfect products of the early twentieth century factories. The Indiana factory worker is intelligent, educated and skilled. The value that his labor adds to an article on its way through the factory is greater than occurs in most other states. But little of the available water power of the state is yet developed. When this is fully utilized many new enterprises will be attracted.

CHAPTER XXIII

INDIANA POLITICALLY

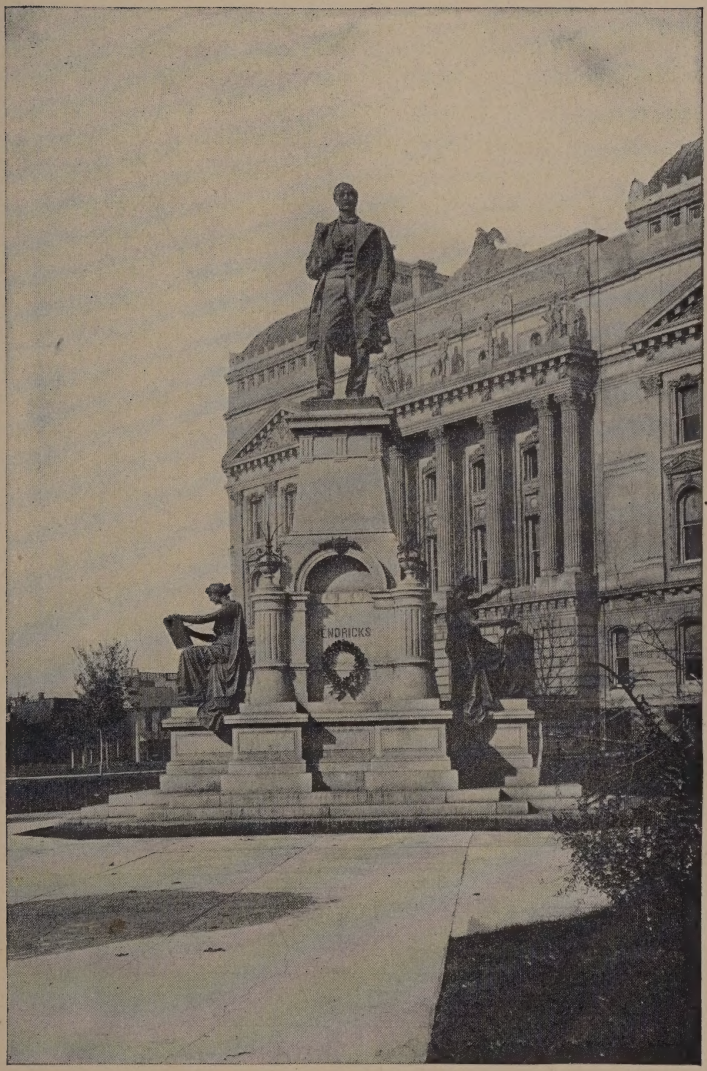
Presidential Elections. Since Indiana became a state twenty-three presidential elections have occurred. In eleven, Indiana gave a majority vote to the Democratic party, in two to the Whig party, and in ten to the Republican party. In nineteen of these elections Indiana gave her majority for the successful candidate. She failed to do this in 1824, when she gave her vote to Andrew Jackson instead of John Q. Adams, in 1836, when she voted for William H. Harrison instead of Martin Van Buren, in 1848, when she voted for Lewis Cass instead of Zachary Taylor, and in 1876, when she voted for Samuel J. Tilden instead of Rutherford B. Hayes. Indiana frequently changes her politics, as shown by the majority vote, but she usually votes with the party that wins. Although regarded as "doubtful," the judgment of the voters in picking a winner seems to be almost certain.

President Harrison. In 1888 Benjamin Harrison, who had represented the state in the United States Senate from 1881 to 1887, was elected President of the United States. His opponent on the Democratic ticket was Grover Cleveland, who was seeking reëlection. President Harrison was a grandson of William Henry Harrison, the first Governor of Indiana Territory, and President of the United States for one month in 1841. He was a lawyer of fine ability, and a political speaker of persuasive power. His honesty and statesmanlike qualities made him a president who brought honor to the Hoosier State.

National Candidates. Indiana has often been represented upon the National ticket by one of her sons as a candidate for vicepresident. Three of these candidates have been successful: Schuyler Colfax in 1863, Thomas A. Hendricks in 1884, and Charles W. Fairbanks in 1904 Hendricks and Fairbanks had both been United States Senators, and the former had been Governor from 1873 to 1877, being the first Democratic Governor elected in a northern state after the War.

Cabinet Officers. The state has been well represented in the cabinets of various presidents. Caleb B. Smith served two years as Secretary of the Interior under Lincoln. Upon his resignation to become a United States circuit judge, John P. Usher was appointed as his successor, and served continuously until the close of Andrew Johnson's term. In the administrations of Lincoln, Johnson, and Arthur, Hugh McCullough was Secretary of the Treasury. The state has had two Postmaster Generals, James N. Tyner, under Grant, and Walter Q. Gresham, under Arthur; two Secretaries of State, John W. Foster, under Harrison, and Walter Q. Gresham, under Cleveland; one Secretary of the Navy, Richard W. Thompson, under Hayes; and one Attorney General, W. H. H. Miller, under Harrison.

In Congress. In the national Congress Indiana has always stood high. Even before she became a state, Jonathan Jennings, her territorial delegate, attracted the attention of the nation by the wisdom and power with which he presented the claims of the new territory. The congressional delegations have been made up of able men, many of whom have served as chairmen of important committees. Three Indiana men have been Speakers. In the twenty-ninth Congress, John W. Davis was Speaker in the thirty-eighth, thirty-ninth, and fortieth Congresses, Schuyler



THOMAS A. HENDRICKS MONUMENT, INDIANAPOLIS

Colfax was Speaker, and in the forty-fourth Congress, Michael C. Kerr was Speaker. The latter died in office.

Indiana in the Senate. In the United States Senate Indiana has always been ably represented. Quite a number of the Senators have served more than one term. This policy, which has also been observed in a number of congressional districts, has helped to give the state high standing in national affairs. Long service gives an acquaintance and an insight which the able man may use to the advantage of his state. The mere mention of the names of Senators Whitcomb, Lane, Turpie, Hendricks, Morton, McDonald, Voorhees and Harrison, shows that the state has nothing to lose by comparison with other states. The great Congressional Library building is a permanent monument to the untiring efforts of Senator Voorhees.

National Politics. In the direct management of the great political parties Indiana has had a large part. The closeness of the vote of the state has made politics interesting to a great number of her people. Almost every school boy is a debater and speaker upon political subjects. The old saying, "Scratch a Hoosier and find a politician," is almost true. The absence of large centers of population and the general intelligence of all the people, have united to develop political leaders who win by an open appeal to reason. The political boss, as he is found in some states has not been developed. The types of leader which the hard fights of Indiana political campaigns have produced, have been of great use in national campaigns. A number of the direct managers, and also many of the best orators in recent presidential campaigns have come from Indiana.

Governors. Indiana has been a fighting ground for the two great political parties. In state politics the victory

has often depended upon the power and personal popularity of the candidate for Governor. This fact has caused both parties to put forward their very best men as candidates for this high office. Such men as Whitcomb, Wright, Lane, Morton, Hendricks, Williams, Gray, Hovey, Matthews and Mount, were strong politicians, but they made excellent Governors. The Indiana politician generally develops statesmanlike qualities when he comes into a position of responsibility. Without exception, the Governors have felt their duty to the whole people and have worked for the good of all, and not merely for the good of party.

Local Politics. The individual citizen comes into close contact with the government of his city, town or township. These local governments have to do with the direct spending of his taxes, with the building of roads, streets and sidewalks, with his water supply, and, with the relief of his unfortunate neighbor. It seems absurd that political belief should be the deciding factor in the selection of officers to administer local affairs. Such, however, is the case. It generally happens that party law is stronger than the desire to elect a really competent man. In recent years many communities have partially or entirely eliminated politics in local affairs. The indications are that this tendency will continue, and that ultimately the voter will disregard politics except in state and national affairs.

SCHUYLER COLFAX MONUMENT, INDIANAPOLIS

CHAPTER XXIV

THE HOOSIER IN LITERATURE

Hoosier. The reason why the term "Hoosier" is applied to natives of Indiana is not known. The date at which the application was first used is also shrouded in mystery. As early as 1833, John Finley wrote a poem for the *Indianapolis Journal* under the title "The Hoosier's Nest." The word occurs several times in the poem. At this time its use must have been somewhat common, although perhaps this poem was the first literary production in which the term occurred.

Probable Origin of the Term. Governor Wright believed that the word Hoosier was a corruption of "Who's here?" This question was asked by the native when a knock was heard upon his door. In the dialect of the frontier the question took the form of "Who's yere?" from which the word Hoosier may have been derived. It has also been suggested that the word may have originated from a peculiar pronunciation of Hussar, which was taken up by some of the natives with the idea of self-glorification. Still another theory of the origin is, that in the earlier days the heroes of the log-rollings and house-raisings were called "hushers," because of their prowess, and that this word was finally corrupted into Hoosier.

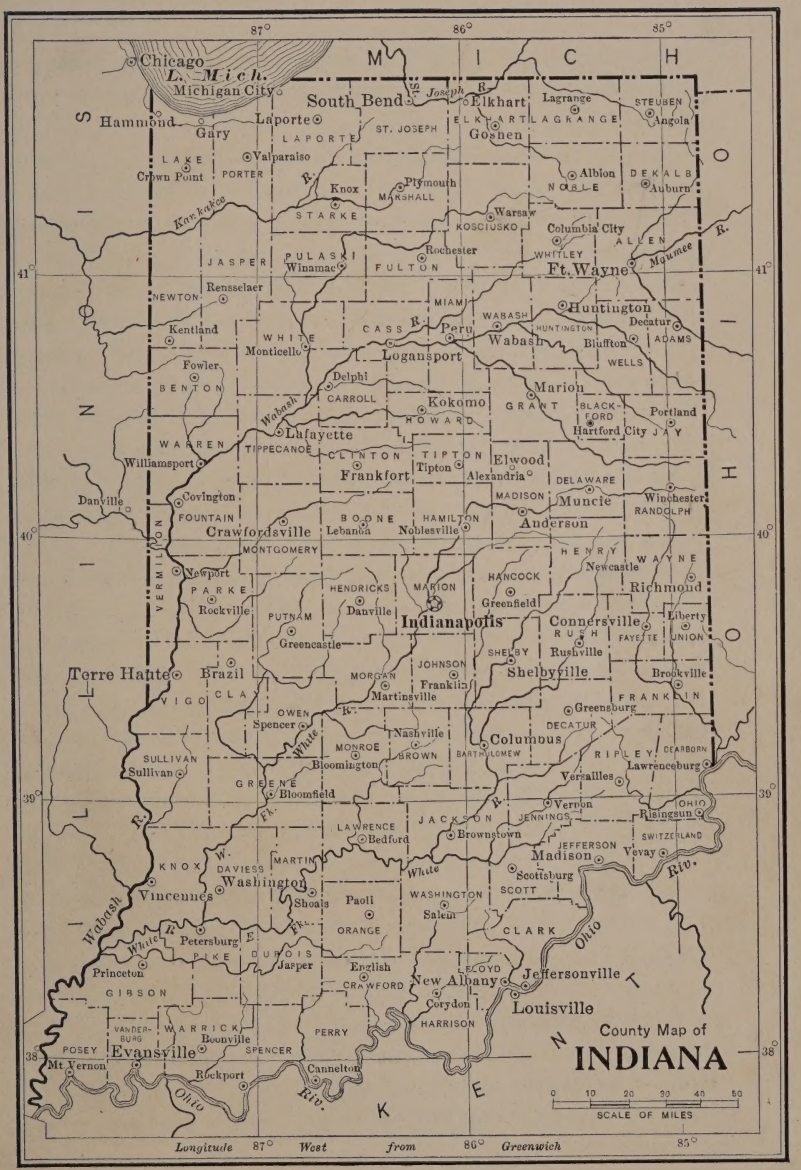
An Honorable Name. Whatever may have been the origin of the term, it has come to be more widely used than any other nickname, unless it be that of Yankee. In the earlier history of the state it was a term of reproach and ridicule applied to the inhabitants of the state, and carried with it the notion that they were "back-woodsmen." The

odium of the earlier use has passed, and it has now come to be a badge of honor. Every native of the state is glad to be called a Hoosier.

Quality of Early Settlers. The early settlers of Indiana came in the main from the South and East. There was a sprinkling of the poor whites from the South who settled in the hilly regions of the state. These people more than any others are responsible for the so-called Hoosier dialect. The majority of the settlers, however, were intelligent, cultured people, representing the very best of the rural civilization of the regions from which they came. Additions were made by immigration from Scotland, Ireland and Germany. These foreign immigrants came with the determination to make Indiana their home. They rapidly fused with other settlers and contributed no little to the general intelligence and culture of the new state.

Reasons for Literary Activity. Outside of the state there has been much surprise at the literary activity of the Hoosiers. When, however, it is recalled that Indiana was settled by a hardy, intelligent class of people with all the courage of the pioneer, that she early dedicated herself to education both elementary and higher, and that the public library has been found in every township for more than half a century, it will be seen that the state has furnished a demand for literature and the means of meeting that demand.

Incorrect Ideas About Indiana Culture. From a literary and cultural viewpoint, Indiana has suffered away from home, because of the writings of some of her most distinguished sons. "The Hoosier Schoolmaster," in which Edward Eggleston portrays a certain phase of rural life, has done much to make outsiders believe that the average Hoosier is of the type of Bud Means. James Whitcomb Riley's dialect poems have led many others to think that



COUNTY MAP OF INDIANA

no native Hoosier speaks good English. As a matter of fact, the English used in Indiana compares favorably with that used in other parts of the nation. As Meredith Nicholson says: "It may be fairly questioned whether, properly speaking, there ever existed a Hoosier dialect. A book of colloquial terms could hardly be compiled for Indiana without infringing upon prior claims of other and older states, and the peculiarities that were carried westward from tidewater early in the century. The distinctive Indiana countryman, the real Hoosier, who has been little in contact with the people of cities, speaks a good deal as his Pennsylvania, or North Carolina, or Kentucky grandparents did before him, and has created nothing new. His speech contains comparatively few words that are peculiar to the state."

Edward Eggleston. Edward Eggleston was born at Vevay. He came from good Virginia stock, and had many advantages in his early life which gave him a trend toward literature. As he states, he was "born into an intelligent atmosphere." In his early life he was not strong enough to attend school. He was, however, a very close student at home. It is said that by the time he was twenty-five years of age he had considerable knowledge of six or seven languages, and was very familiar with English and French literature. He is the author of "The Hoosier Schoolmaster," "The End of the World," "Roxy," and "The Circuit Rider," besides numerous other stories for young people.

James Whitcomb Riley. James Whitcomb Riley is a poet whose fame is secure. Wherever the English language is read, and so long as it continues to be alive, Mr. Riley will be known and honored. He is, indeed, a poet of the people. He understands and interprets the simple everyday life to common folks. As Senator Beveridge says: "That is why the people love him. That is why we love James Whitcomb Riley. He has under-

stood us—understood us because he is of us; and, understanding us, has told us of ourselves, of our ideal selves, and therefore of our truly real selves. For only that is real in the soul of man which, to the mind of the man, is ideal." It would be a mistake to suppose that Mr. Riley is great only in interpreting the simple types of rural life. He is great in whatever field he enters. He is truly and wholly an American. Whether he writes in the field of the comic, the sentimental or the pathetic, he is wholly irresistible—he turns the commonest things into pure gold. As an interpreter of child life he is without a peer.

Lew Wallace. General Lew Wallace was born at Brookville, in Franklin County, but spent most of his life at Crawfordsville. In his youth he had three ambitions: to make pictures, to write books, and to be a soldier. As a boy he painted a picture of Blackhawk, an Indian chief, completed a novel, and when the Mexican War broke out, organized a company and entered the army. Although he saw but little of the war, his experience gave him the basis of a novel. At the opening of the Civil War he at once became a conspicuous figure. He won fame in many engagements, and was promoted to the rank of Major General. His first important book was "The Fair God," a tale of Mexico at the time of the invasion of Cortez. His greatest novel is Ben Hur, a tale of the Christ. This latter book has had a wonderful sale. It has been translated into many foreign languages. It has also been dramatized and has had a successful career in that form. General Wallace represented our country as Minister to Turkey during Garfield's administration. The President asked him to use his leisure while on this mission to produce a new story. The result was "The Prince of India." He has written a number of other stories, but will always be best known as the author of Ben Hur.

Maurice Thompson. Maurice Thompson was born at Fairfield, near Brookville. He spent his boyhood and early manhood in the South, where he served as a soldier in the Confederate Army during the Civil War. He finally became a lawyer, settled at Crawfordsville, and spent the latter part of his life in that city. His first fame as an author came from a series of magazine articles on "Archery and Shooting with the Long Bow." These essays were gathered together under the title of "The Witchery of Archery." In 1883 a volume of poems bearing the title of "Songs of Fair Weather" appeared. He is the author of a number of novels, among which may be mentioned "A Tallahassee Girl," "At Love's Extremes," and a "Fortnight of Folly." His best known novel is "Alice of Old Vincennes," which brought him great fame and made his name a household word.

Distinguished Novelists. In the last decade a number of Indiana authors have been so very successful that it may be truthfully said, that the literary center of the country, as well as the population center, is now in Indiana. Among the more noted of recent novelists may be mentioned David Graham Phillips, author of "The Plum Tree;" Meredith Nicholson, author of "The House of a Thousand Candles;" George Ade, author of "Fables in Slang;" George Barr McCutcheon, author of "Beverly of Graustark;" Charles Major, author of "When Knighthood Was in Flower;" Gene Stratton Porter, author of "Freckles;" Elizabeth Miller, author of "The Yoke;" Booth Tarkington, author of "Monsieur Beaucaire;" and Wilbur Nesbit, author of "A Gentleman Ragman." These writers have each produced many other stories.

Juvenile Literature. Annie Fellows Johnston, in "The Little Colonel Series," has won the love of young people everywhere. Perhaps no juvenile stories have been more

popular or successful. George Cary Eggleston has written some capital boys' stories, the best being "The Last of the Flatboats." Riley's Poems of Childhood delight every child fortunate enough to hear or read them.

Poetry. In poetry, besides Riley, we may mention Sarah T. Bolton, author of "Indiana," and "Paddle Your Own Canoe;" Benjamin S. Parker, author of "The Cabin in the Clearing;" and Lee O. Harris, the teacher of Mr. Riley, and the author of "Interludes."

Miscellaneous Writings. In history, biography and essay, Indiana writers have merited favorable mention. In this list are included: George W. Julian, author of "Speeches on Political Subjects;" and a "Life of Joshua R. Giddings;" William Dudley Foulke, author of "Slav and Saxon," and the "Life of Oliver P. Morton; John B. Dillon the first important historian of the state; Jacob P. Dunn, the author of "Indiana, A Redemption from Slavery;" Albert J. Beveridge, author of "The Russian Advance;" John W. Foster, author of "Twenty Years of Diplomacy;" Hugh McCulloch, author of "Men and Measures of Half a Century;" and Colonel Richard Thompson, author of "Recollections of Sixteen Presidents."

The Outlook. That Indiana has done well in the past is history, that she is doing her part nobly now is common knowledge, and that she will do greater things in the future is the hope of all her children. Her schools are better than ever before, and are improving daily. Wealth and leisure have come, and with them the opportunity for larger culture. She is in the path of the great routes of travel from east to west, and from north to south. Her position brings her in touch with all the nation. If her citizens continue to improve these opportunities there is no dream of future greatness that may not be fully realized.

APPENDIX

I. GOVERNORS

NORTHWEST TERRITORY

Arthur St. Clair.....1787–1800

INDIANA TERRITORY

William Henry Harrison.....1800–1812
Thomas Posey.....1812–1816

INDIANA

Jonathan Jennings.....1816–1822
Ratliffe Boone.....1822
William Hendricks.....1822–1825
James B. Ray.....1825–1831
Noah Noble.....1831–1837
David Wallace.....1837–1840
Samuel Bigger.....1840–1843
James Whitcomb.....1843–1848
Paris C. Dunning (Acting).....1848–1849
Joseph A. Wright.....1849–1857
Ashbel P. Willard.....1857–1860
Abram A. Hammond.....1860–1861
Henry S. Lane.....1861
Oliver P. Morton.....1861–1867
Conrad Baker.....1867–1872
Thomas A. Hendricks.....1873–1877
James D. Williams.....1877–1880
Isaac P. Gray (Acting).....1880–1881
Albert G. Porter.....1881–1885
Isaac P. Gray.....1885–1889
Alvin P. Hovey.....1889–1891
Ira J. Chase (Acting).....1891–1893
Claude Matthews.....1893–1897
James A. Mount.....1897–1901
W. T. Durbin.....1901–1905
J. Frank Hanley.....1905–1909
Thomas R. Marshall.....1909–1913
Ralston, Samuel R 1913–1917
Goodrich, James P 1917–1921
McCray 1921–25
Jackson, Ed — 1925–29
Leslie

II. UNITED STATES SENATORS

INDIANA

James Noble	1816–1831
Waller Taylor	1816–1825
William Hendricks	1825–1837
Robert Hanna (Appointed)	1831
John Tipton	1831–1839
Oliver H. Smith	1837–1843
Albert S. White	1839–1845
Edward A. Hannegan	1843–1849
Jesse D. Bright	1845–1861
James Whitcomb	1849–1852
Charles W. Cathcart (Appointed)	1852–1853
John Petit	1853–1857
Graham N. Fitch	1857–1861
Joseph A. Wright (Appointed)	1861–1863
Henry S. Lane	1861–1867
David Turpie	1863
Thomas A. Hendricks	1863–1869
Oliver P. Morton	1867–1877
Daniel D. Pratt	1869–1875
Joseph E. McDonald	1875–1881
Daniel W. Voorhees	1877–1897
Benjamin Harrison	1881–1887
David Turpie	1887–1899
Charles W. Fairbanks	1897–1905
Albert J. Beveridge	1899–1911
James Heminway	1905–1909
B. F. Shively	1909
John W. Kern	1911

III. INDIANA COUNTIES

COUNTY	ORGANIZED	COUNTY SEAT	FOR WHOM NAMED
Adams	Feb. 7, 1835	Decatur	John Adams
Allen	Dec. 17, 1823	Ft. Wayne	Col. John Allen
Bartholomew	Jan. 8, 1811	Columbus	Gen. Bartholomew
Benton	Feb. 18, 1840	Fowler	Thomas H. Benton
Blackford	Feb. 15, 1838	Hartford City	Judge Blackford
Boone	Jan. 29, 1830	Lebanon	Ratliffe Boone
Brown	Feb. 4, 1830	Nashville	Gen. Jacob Brown
Carroll	Jan. 7, 1828	Delphi	
Cass	Dec. 18, 1828	Logansport	Lewis Cass
Clark	1802	Jeffersonville	Gen. Geo. R. Clark
Clay	Feb. 12, 1825	Brazil	Henry Clay
Clinton	Jan. 29, 1830	Frankfort	DeWitt Clinton
Crawford	Jan. 29, 1818	Leavenworth	Col. Wm. Crawford
Daviess	Dec. 24, 1816	Washington	Col. Daviess
Dearborn	1805	Lawrenceburg	Col. Henry Dearborn
Decatur	Dec. 21, 1821	Greensburg	Com. Decatur
DeKalb	Feb. 7, 1835	Auburn	General DeKalb
Delaware	Jan. 22, 1820	Muncie	An Indian Tribe
Dubois	Dec. 20, 1817	Jasper	Toussant Dubois
Elkhart	Jan. 29, 1830	Goshen	* See Footnote
Fayette	Dec. 28, 1818	Connersville	LaFayette
Floyd	Jan. 2, 1819	New Albany	David Floyd
Fountain	Dec. 30, 1825	Covington	Major Fountain
Franklin	Nov. 27, 1810	Brookville	Benjamin Franklin
Fulton	Feb. 7, 1835	Rochester	Robert Fulton
Gibson	Mar. 9, 1813	Princeton	Gen. John Gibson
Grant	Feb. 10, 1831	Marion	Capt. Samuel Grant
Greene	Jan. 5, 1821	Bloomfield	General Greene
Hamilton	Jan. 8, 1823	Noblesville	Alexander Hamilton
Hancock	Jan. 26, 1827	Greenfield	John Hancock
Harrison	Oct. 11, 1808	Corydon	Gen. W. H. Harrison
Hendricks	Dec. 20, 1823	Danville	Gen. Wm. Hendricks
Henry	Dec. 31, 1821	New Castle	Patrick Henry
Howard	Dec. 28, 1846	Kokomo	Gen. T. A. Howard
Huntington	Feb. 2, 1832	Huntington	Samuel Huntington
Jackson	Dec. 18, 1815	Brownstown	Andrew Jackson
Jasper	Feb. 7, 1835	Rensselaer	Sergeant Jasper
Jay	Feb. 7, 1835	Portland	John Jay
Jefferson	Nov. 23, 1810	Madison	Thomas Jefferson
Jennings	Dec. 27, 1816	Vernon	Jonathan Jennings
Johnson	Dec. 31, 1822	Franklin	G. W. Johnson
Knox	Jan. 14, 1790	Vincennes	Gen. Henry Knox
Kosciusko	Feb. 7, 1835	Warsaw	A Polish soldier
LaGrange	Feb. 2, 1832	LaGrange	Home of LaFayette
Lake	Jan. 28, 1836	Crown Point	Lake Michigan
Laporte	Jan. 9, 1832	Laporte	**See Footnote

*From an island in the river which had a fancied resemblance to an elk's heart.

** The name is French and means portal or entrance. It was applied to the village which was at the edge of the great forest, or at the opening of the prairie land.

INDIANA COUNTIES—*Continued.*

COUNTY	ORGANIZED	COUNTY SEAT	FOR WHOM NAMED
Lawrence	Jan. 7, 1818	Bedford	Capt. Lawrence
Madison	Jan. 4, 1823	Anderson	James Madison
Marion	Dec. 31, 1821	Indianapolis	Gen. Francis Marion
Marshall	Feb. 7, 1835	Plymouth	Ch'f Justice Mashal
Martin	Jan. 17, 1820	Shoals	Major Martin
Miami	Feb. 2, 1832	Peru	An Indian tribe
Monroe	Jan. 14, 1818	Bloomington	James Monroe
Montgomery	Dec. 21, 1822	Crawfordsville	Gen. Montgomery
Morgan	Dec. 31, 1821	Martinsville	General Morgan
Newton	Feb. 7, 1835	Kentland	Sir Isaac Newton
Noble	Feb. 7, 1835	Albion	Noah Noble
Ohio	Jan. 4, 1844	Rising Sun	Ohio River
Orange	Dec. 26, 1815	Paoli	A county in N. Car.
Owen	Dec. 21, 1818	Spencer	Col. Abram Owen
Parke	Jan. 9, 1821	Rockville	Benjamin Parke
Perry	Sept. 7, 1814	Cannelton	Commodore Perry
Pike	Dec. 21, 1816	Petersburg	Gen. Z. M. Pike
Porter	Feb. 7, 1835	Valparaiso	Commodore Porter
Posey	Sept. 7, 1814	Mt. Vernon	Thomas Posey
Pulaski	Feb. 7, 1835	Winamac	A Polish soldier
Putnam	Dec. 31, 1821	Greencastle	General Puntam
Randolph	Jan. 10, 1818	Winchester	A county in N. Car.
Ripley	Dec. 27, 1816	Versailles	Gen. Z. W. Ripley
Rush	Dec. 31, 1821	Rushville	Dr. Benjamin Rush
Scott	Jan. 12, 1820	Lexington	Gen. Charles Scott
Shelby	Dec. 31, 1821	Shelbyville	Isaac Shelby
Spencer	Jan. 10, 1818	Rockport	Capt. Spencer
Starke	Feb. 7, 1835	Knox	General Starke
Steuben	Feb. 7, 1835	Angola	Baron Steuben
St. Joseph	Feb. 29, 1830	South Bend	St. Joseph River
Sullivan	Dec. 30, 1816	Sullivan	Gen. Sullivan
Switzerland	Sept. 7, 1814	Vevay	Switzerland
Tippecanoe	Jan. 20, 1826	LaFayette	Tippecanoe River
Tipton	Jan. 15, 1844	Tipton	Gen. John Tipton
Union	Jan. 5, 1821	Liberty	*See Footnote
Vanderburgh	Jan. 7, 1818	Evansville	Judge Vanderburgh
Vermillion	Jan. 2, 1824	Newport	† See Footnote
Vigo	Jan. 21, 1818	Terre Haute	Francis Vigo
Wabash	Jan. 22, 1835	Wabash	Wabash River
Warren	Jan. 19, 1827	Williamsport	Gen. Jos. Warren
Warrick	Mar. 9, 1813	Boonville	Capt. Warrick
Washington	Dec. 21, 1813	Salem	Geo. Washington
Wayne	Nov. 27, 1810	Richmond	General Wayne
Wells	Feb. 7, 1835	Bluffton	Capt. Wm. Wells
White	Feb. 1, 1834	Monticello	Col. White
Whitley	Feb. 7, 1835	Columbia City	Col. W. Whitley

*From the hope that its organization would harmonize the quarrel that existed over the county seats of Wayne and Fayette Counties.

†Literal translation of the Miami Indian word "pe-auk-e-shaw," applied to the Big and Little Vermilion Rivers, because of the red earth or "keel" found along their banks.

IV. CONSTITUTION OF INDIANA

AS AMENDED

PREAMBLE

To the end, that justice be established, public order maintained, and liberty perpetuated; We, the people of the State of Indiana, grateful to Almighty God for the free exercise of the right to choose our own form of government, do ordain this Constitution.

ARTICLE I

BILL OF RIGHTS

Section 1. We declare, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that all power is inherent in the people; and that all free governments are, and of right ought to be, founded on their authority, and instituted for their peace, safety, and well being. For the advancement of these ends, the people have, at all times, an indefeasible right to alter and reform their government.

Sec. 2. All men shall be secured in their natural right to worship Almighty God according to the dictates of their own consciences.

Sec. 3. No law shall, in any case whatever, control the free exercise and enjoyment of religious opinions, or interfere with the rights of conscience.

Sec. 4. No preference shall be given, by law, to any creed, religious society, or mode of worship; and no man shall be compelled to attend, erect, or support, any place of worship, or to maintain any ministry, against his consent.

Sec. 5. No religious test shall be required, as a qualification for any office of trust or profit.

Sec. 6. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, for the benefit of any religious or theological institution.

Sec. 7. No person shall be rendered incompetent as a witness, in consequence of his opinions on matters of religion.

Sec. 8. The mode of administering an oath or affirmation shall be such as may be most consistent with, and binding upon, the conscience of the person to whom such oath or affirmation may be administered.

Sec. 9. No law shall be passed restraining the free interchange of thought and opinion, or restricting the right to speak, write, or print, freely, on any subject whatever; but for the abuse of that right, every person shall be responsible.

Sec. 10. In all prosecutions for libel, the truth of the matters alleged to be libelous may be given in justification.

Sec. 11. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable search or seizure, shall not be violated; and no warrant shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched and the person or thing to be seized.

Sec. 12. All courts shall be open; and every man for injury done him in his person, property, or reputation, shall have remedy by due course of law. Justice shall be administered freely, and without purchase; completely and without denial; speedily and without delay.

Sec. 13. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall have the right to a public trial, by an impartial jury, in the county in which the offense shall have been committed; to be heard by himself and counsel; to demand the nature and cause of the accusation against him, and to have a copy thereof; to meet the witnesses face to face, and to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor.

Sec. 14. No person shall be put in jeopardy twice for the same offense. No person, in any criminal prosecution, shall be compelled to testify against himself.

Sec. 15. No person arrested, or confined in jail, shall be treated with unnecessary rigor.

Sec. 16. Excessive bail shall not be required. Excessive fines shall not be imposed. Cruel and unusual punishment shall not be inflicted. All penalties shall be proportioned to the nature of the offense.

Sec. 17. Offenses, other than murder and treason, shall be bailable by sufficient sureties. Murder and treason shall not be bailable, when the proof is evident or the presumption strong.

Sec. 18. The penal code shall be founded on the principles of reformation, and not of vindictive justice.

Sec. 19. In all criminal cases whatever, the jury shall have the right to determine the law and the facts.

Sec. 20. In all civil cases, the right of trial by jury shall remain inviolate.

Sec. 21. No man's particular services shall be demanded without just compensation. No man's property shall be taken by law without

just compensation; nor, except in case of the State, without such compensation first assessed and tendered.

Sec. 22. The privilege of the debtor to enjoy the necessary comforts of life, shall be recognized by wholesome laws, exempting a reasonable amount of property from seizure or sale for the payment of any debt or liability hereafter contracted; and there shall be no imprisonment for debt, except in case of fraud.

Sec. 23. The General Assembly shall not grant to any citizen, or class of citizens, privileges or immunities, which, upon the same terms, shall not equally belong to all citizens.

Sec. 24. No *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contract, shall be passed.

Sec. 25. No law shall be passed, the taking effect of which shall be made to depend upon any authority, except as provided in this Constitution.

Sec. 26. The operation of the laws shall never be suspended, except by the authority of the General Assembly.

Sec. 27. The privileges of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, except in case of rebellion or invasion; and then, only if the public safety demand it.

Sec. 28. Treason against the State shall consist only in levying war against it, and in giving aid and comfort to its enemies.

Sec. 29. No person shall be convicted of treason, except on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or upon his confession in open court.

Sec. 30. No conviction shall work corruption of blood or forfeiture of estate.

Sec. 31. No law shall restrain any of the inhabitants of the State from assembling together in a peaceable manner to consult for their common good; nor from instructing their representatives; nor from applying to the General Assembly for redress of grievances.

Sec. 32. The people shall have a right to bear arms for the defense of themselves and the State.

Sec. 33. The military shall be kept in strict subordination to the civil power.

Sec. 34. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor, in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Sec. 35. The General Assembly shall not grant any title of nobility nor confer hereditary distinctions.

Sec. 36. Emigration from the State shall not be prohibited.

Sec. 37. There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude within the State, otherwise than for the punishment of crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted. No indenture of any Negro or Mulatto, made and executed out of the bounds of the State, shall be valid within the State.

ARTICLE II

SUFFRAGE AND ELECTIONS

Section 1. All elections shall be free and equal.

Sec. 2. In all elections, not otherwise provided for by this Constitution, every male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who shall have resided in the State during the six months, and in the township sixty days, and in the ward or precinct thirty days immediately preceding such election; and every male of foreign birth, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who shall have resided in the United States one year, and shall have resided in this State during the six months, and in the township sixty days, and in the ward or precinct thirty days, immediately preceding such election, and shall have declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, conformably to the laws of the United States on the subject of naturalization, shall be entitled to vote in the tonwship or precinct where he may reside, if he shall have been duly registered according to law. (As amended March 24, 1881.)

Sec. 3. No soldier, seaman, or marine, in the army or navy of the United States, or of their allies, shall be deemed to have acquired a residence in the State in consequence of having been stationed within the same; nor shall any such soldier, seaman, or marine have the right to vote.

Sec. 4. No person shall be deemed to have lost his residence in the State, by reason of his absence, either on business of the State or of the United States.

Sec. 5. [Stricken out by constitutional amendment of March 14, 1881.]

Sec. 6. Every person shall be disqualified from holding office, during the term for which he may have been elected, who shall have given or offered a bribe, threat, or reward, to secure his election.

Sec. 7. Every person who shall give or accept a challenge to fight a duel, or who shall knowingly carry to another person such challenge, or who shall agree to go out of the State to fight a duel, shall be ineligible to any office of trust or profit.

Sec. 8. The General Assembly shall have power to deprive of the right of suffrage, and to render ineligible any person convicted of an infamous crime.

Sec. 9. No person holding a lucrative office or appointment under the United States or under this State, shall be eligible to a seat in the General Assembly; nor shall any person hold more than one lucrative office at the same time, except as in this Constitution expressly permitted; Provided, That offices in the militia, to which there is attached no annual salary, and the office of deputy postmaster, where the compensation does not exceed ninety dollars per annum, shall not be deemed lucrative; And provided, also, That counties containing less than one thousand polls may confer the office of Clerk, Recorder, and Auditor, or any two of said offices, upon the same person.

Sec. 10. No person who may hereafter be a collector or holder of public moneys, shall be eligible to any office of trust or profit until he shall have accounted for, and paid over, according to law, all sums for which he may be liable.

Sec. 11. In all cases in which it is provided that an office shall not be filled by the same person more than a certain number of years continuously, an appointment *pro tempore* shall not be reckoned a part of that term.

Sec. 12. In all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, electors shall be free from arrest, in going to elections, during their attendance there, and in returning from the same.

Sec. 13. All elections by the People shall be by ballot; and all elections by the General Assembly, or by either branch thereof, shall be *viva voce*.

Sec. 14. All general elections shall be held on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November; but township elections may be held at such time as may be provided by law: Provided, That the General Assembly may provide by law for the election of all judges of courts of general and appellate jurisdiction, by an election to be held for such officers only, at which time no other officer shall be voted for; and shall also provide for the registration of all persons entitled to vote. (As amended March 14, 1881.)

ARTICLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF POWERS

Section 1. The powers of the Government are divided into three separate departments: the Legislative, the Executive (including the

Administrative), and the Judicial; And no person, charged with official duties under one of these departments, shall exercise any of the functions of another except as in this Constitution expressly provided.

ARTICLE IV

LEGISLATIVE

Section 1. The Legislative authority of the State shall be vested in a General Assembly, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives. The style of every law shall be, "Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Indiana;" and no law shall be enacted except by bill.

Sec. 2. The Senate shall not exceed fifty, nor the House of Representatives one hundred members; and they shall be chosen by the electors of the respective counties or districts into which the State may, from time to time, be divided.

Sec. 3. Senators shall be elected for the term of four years, and Representatives for the term of two years, from the day next after their general election: Provided, however, That the Senators elect, at the second meeting of the General Assembly under this Constitution, shall be divided, by lot, into two equal classes, as nearly as may be; and the seats of Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of two years, and of those of the second class at the expiration of four years; so that one-half, as nearly as possible, shall be chosen biennially forever thereafter. And in case of increase in the number of Senators, they shall be so annexed by lot, to one or the other of the two classes, as to keep them as nearly equal as practicable.

Sec. 4. The General Assembly shall, at its second session after the adoption of this Constitution, and every six years thereafter, cause an enumeration to be made of all the male inhabitants over the age of twenty-one years. (As amended March 14, 1881.)

Sec. 5. The number of Senators and Representatives shall, at the session next following each period of making such enumeration, be fixed by law, and apportioned among the several counties according to the number of male inhabitants, above twenty-one years of age, in each: Provided, That the first and second elections of members of the General Assembly, under this Constitution, shall be according to the apportionment last made by the General Assembly before the adoption of this Constitution. (As amended March 14, 1881.)

Sec. 6. A Senatorial or Representative district, where more than one county shall constitute a district, shall be composed of contiguous

counties; and no county, for Senatorial apportionment, shall ever be divided.

Sec. 7. No person shall be a Senator or a Representaive who, at the time of his election, is not a citizen of the United States; nor any one who has not been, for two years next preceding his election, an inhabitant of this State, and for one year next preceding his election, an inhabitant of the county or district whence he may be chosen. Senators shall be at least twenty-five, and Representatives at least twenty-one years of age.

Sec. 8. Senators and Representatives, in all cases except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, shall be pivileged from arrest, during the session of the General Assembly, and in going to and returning from the same; and shall not be subject to any civil process, during the session of the General Assembly, nor during the fifteen days next before the commencement thereof. For any speech or debate in either House, a member shall not be questioned in any other place.

Sec. 9. The sessions of the General Assembly shall be held biennially at the capital of the State, commencing on the Thursday next after the first Monday of January, in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-three, and on the same day of every second year thereafter, unless a different day or place shall have been appointed by law. But if, in the opinion of the Governor, the public welfare shall require it, he may, at any time by proclamation, call a special session.

Sec. 10. Each House, when assembled, shall choose its own officers, the President of the Senate excepted; judge the elections, qualifications, and returns of its own members; determine its rules of proceeding, and sit upon its own adjournment. But neither House shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any place other than that in which it may be sitting.

Sec. 11. Two-thirds of each House shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may meet, adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of absent members. A quorum being in attendance, if either House fail to effect an organization within the first five days thereafter, the members of the House so failing, shall be entitled to no compensation from the end of the said five days, until an organization shall have been effected.

Sec. 12. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and publish the same. The yeas and nays, on any question, shall, at the request of any two members, be entered, together with the names of the members demanding the same, on the journal: Provided, That, on

motion to adjourn, it shall require one-tenth of the members present to order the yeas and nays.

Sec. 13. The doors of each house, and of committees of the whole, shall be kept open, except in such cases, as, in the opinion of either House, may require secrecy.

Sec. 14. Either House may punish its members for disorderly behavior, and may, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member; but not a second time for the same cause.

Sec. 15. Either House, during its session, may punish, by imprisonment, any person not a member, who shall have been guilty of disrespect to the House, by disorderly or contemptuous behavior in its presence; but such imprisonment shall not, at any time, exceed twenty-four hours.

Sec. 16. Each House shall have all powers, necessary for a branch of the legislative department of a free and independent State.

Sec. 17. Bills may originate in either House, but may be amended or rejected in the other, except that bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives.

Sec. 18. Every bill shall be read, by sections, on three several days, in each House; unless, in case of emergency, two-thirds of the House where such bill may be pending shall, by a vote of yeas and nays, deem it expedient to dispense with this rule; but the reading of a bill by sections, on its final passage, shall in no case be dispensed with; and the vote on the passage of every bill or joint resolution shall be taken by yeas and nays.

Sec. 19. Every act shall embrace but one subject and matters properly connected therewith; which subject shall be expressed in the title. But if any subject shall be embraced in an act, which shall not be expressed in the title, such act shall be void only as to so much thereof as shall not be expressed in the title.

Sec. 20. Every act and joint resolution shall be plainly worded, avoiding, as far as practicable, the use of technical terms.

Sec. 21. No act shall ever be revised or amended by mere reference to its title; but the act revised, or section amended, shall be set forth and published at full length.

Sec. 22. The General Assembly shall not pass local or special laws in any of the following enumerated cases, that is to say:

Regulating the jurisdiction and duties of Justices of the Peace and of Constables;

For the punishment of crimes and misdemeanors:

Regulating the practice in courts of justice;

Providing for changing the venue in civil and criminal cases;

Granting divorces;

Changing the names of persons;

For laying out, opening, and working on, highways, and for the election or appointment of supervisors;

Vacating roads, town plats, streets, alleys, and public squares;

Summoning and impanneling grand and petit juries, and providing for their compensation;

Regulating county and township business;

Regulating the election of county and township officers, and their compensation;

For the assessment and collection of taxes for State, county, township, or road purposes;

Providing for supporting common schools, and for the preservation of school funds;

In relation to fees or salaries; except that the laws may be so made as to grade the compensation of officers in proportion to the population and the necessary services required. (As amended March 14, 1881.)

In relation to interest on money;

Providing for opening and conducting elections of State, county, or township officers, and designating the places of voting;

Providing for the sale of real estate belonging to minors, or other persons laboring under legal disabilities, by executors, administrators, guardians, or trustees.

Sec. 23. In all the cases enumerated in the preceding section, and in all other cases where a general law can be made applicable, all laws shall be general and of uniform operation throughout the State.

Sec. 24. Provision may be made, by general law, for bringing suit against the State, as to all liabilities originating after the adoption of this Constitution; but no special act authorizing such suit to be brought, or making compensation to any person claiming damages against the State, shall ever be passed.

Sec. 25. A majority of all the members elected to each House, shall be necessary to pass every bill or joint resolution; and all bills and joint resolutions so passed shall be signed by the Presiding Officers of the respective Houses.

Sec. 26. Any member of either House shall have the right to protest, and to have his protest, with his reasons for dissent, entered on the journal.

Sec. 27. Every statute shall be a public law, unless otherwise declared in the statute itself.

Sec. 28. No act shall take effect until the same shall have been published and circulated, in the several counties of this State by authority, except in case of emergency; which emergency shall be declared in the preamble or in the body of the law.

Sec. 29. The members of the General Assembly shall receive for their services a compensation to be fixed by law; but no increase of compensation shall take effect during the session at which such increase may be made. No session of the General Assembly, except the first under this Constitution, shall extend beyond the term of sixty-one days, nor any special session beyond the term of forty days.

Sec. 30. No Senator or Representative shall, during the term for which he may have been elected, be eligible to any office the election of which is vested in the General Assembly; nor shall he be appointed to any civil office of profit, which shall have been created, or the emoluments of which shall have been increased, during such term; but this latter provision shall not be construed to apply to any office elective by the People.

ARTICLE V

EXECUTIVE

Section 1. The executive powers of the State shall be vested in a Governor. He shall hold his office during four years, and shall not be eligible more than four years, in any period of eight years.

Sec. 2. There shall be a Lieutenant-Governor, who shall hold his office duing four years.

Sec. 3. The Governor and Lieutenant-Governor shall be elected at the times and places of choosing members of the General Assembly.

Sec. 4. In voting for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor the electors shall designate for whom they vote as Governor, and for whom as Lieutenant-Governor. The returns of every election for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor shall be sealed up and transmitted to the seat of government, directed to the Speaker of the House of Representatives, who shall open and publish them in the presence of both Houses of the General Assembly.

Sec. 5. The persons respectively, having the highest number of votes for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor shall be elected; but in case two or more persons shall have an equal and the highest number of votes for either office, the General Assembly shall, by joint vote,

forthwith proceed to elect one of the said persons Governor or Lieutenant-Governor, as the case may be.

Sec. 6. Contested elections for Governor or Lieutenant-Governor shall be determined by the General Assembly, in such manner as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 7. No person shall be eligible to the office of Governor or Lieutenant-Governor, who shall not have been five years a citizen of the United States, and also a resident of the State of Indiana during the five years next preceding his election; nor shall any person be eligible to either of the said offices who shall not have attained the age of thirty years.

Sec. 8. No member of Congress, or person holding any office under the United States or under this State, shall fill the office of Governor or Lieutenant-Governor.

Sec. 9. The official term of the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor shall commence on the second Monday of January, in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-three; and on the same day every four years thereafter.

Sec. 10. In case of the removal of the Governor from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the duties of the office, the same shall devolve on the Lieutenant-Governor; and the General Assembly shall, by law, provide for the case of removal from office, death, resignation, or inability, both of the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, declaring what officer shall then act as Governor; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a Governor be elected.

Sec. 11. Whenever the Lieutenant-Governor shall act as Governor, or shall be unable to attend as President of the Senate, the Senate shall elect one of its own members as President for the occasion.

Sec. 12. The Governor shall be commander-in-chief of the military and naval forces, and may call out such forces to execute the laws or to suppress insurrection, or to repel invasion.

Sec. 13. He shall, from time to time, give to the General Assembly information touching the condition of the State, and recommend such measures as he shall judge to be expedient.

Sec. 14. Every bill which shall have passed the General Assembly, shall be presented to the Governor; if he approves, he shall sign it; but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to the House in which it shall have originated; which House shall enter the objections, at large, upon its journals and proceed to reconsider the bill. If, after such reconsideration, a majority of all the members elected to that

House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, with the Governor's objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered; and, if approved by a majority of all the members elected to that House, it shall be a law. If any bill shall not be returned by the Governor within three days, Sunday excepted, after it shall have been presented to him, it shall be a law without his signature, unless the general adjournment shall prevent its return, in which case it shall be a law, unless the Governor, within five days next after such adjournment, shall file such bill, with his objections thereto, in the office of the Secretary of State, who shall lay the same before the General Assembly at its next session, in like manner as if it had been returned by the Governor. But no bill shall be presented to the Governor within two days next previous to the final ajdournment of the General Assembly.

Sec. 15. The Governor shall transact all necessary business with the officers of Government, and may require information in writing from the officers of the administrative department upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices.

Sec. 16. He shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed.

Sec. 17. He shall have the power to grant reprieves, commutations, and pardons, after conviction, for all offenses except treason and cases of impeachment, subject to such regulations as may be provided by law. Upon conviction for treason, he shall have power to suspend the execution of the sentence until the case shall be reported to the General Assembly, at its next meeting; when the General Assembly shall either grant a pardon, commute the sentence, direct the execution of the sentence, or grant a further reprieve. He shall have power to remit fines and forfeitures, under such regulations as may be prescribed by law; and shall report to the General Assembly, at its next meeting, each case of reprieve, commutation, or pardon granted, and also the names of all persons in whose favor remission of fines and forfeitures shall have been made, and the several amounts remitted: Provided, however, That the General Assembly may, by law, constitute a council, to be composed of officers of State, without whose advice and consent the Governor shall not have power to grant pardons, in any case, except such as may, by law, be left to his sole power.

Sec. 18. When, during a recess of the General Assembly, a vacancy shall happen in any office, the appointment to which is vested in the General Assembly; or when, at any time, a vacany shall have occurred in any other State office, or in the office of Judge of any court; the Governor shall fill such vacancy by appointment, which shall expire when a successor shall have been elected and qualified.

Sec. 19. He shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies as may have occurred in the General Assembly.

Sec. 20. Should the seat of Government become dangerous from disease or a common enemy, he may convene the General Assembly at any other place.

Sec. 21. The Lieutenant-Governor shall, by virtue of his office, be President of the Senate; have a right, when in Committee of the Whole, to join in debate, and to vote on all subjects; and whenever the Senate shall be equally divided, he shall give the casting vote.

Sec. 22. The Governor shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the term for which he shall have been elected.

Sec. 23. The Lieutenant-Governor, while he shall act as President of the Senate, shall receive for his services the same compensation as the Speaker of the House of Representatives; and any person acting as Governor shall receive the compensation attached to the office of Governor.

Sec. 24. Neither the Governor nor Lientenant-Governor shall be eligible to any other office, during the term for which he shall have been elected.

ARTICLE VI

ADMINISTRATIVE

Section 1. There shall be elected by the voters of the State, a Secretary, an Auditor, and a Treasurer of State, who shall severally, hold their offices for two years. They shall perform such duties as may be enjoined by law; and no person shall be eligible to either of said offices more than four years in any period of six years.

Sec. 2. There shall be elected, in each county by the voters thereof, at the time of holding general elections, a Clerk of the Circuit Court, Auditor, Recorder, Treasurer, Sheriff, Coroner, and Surveyor. The Clerk, Auditor, and Recorder, shall continue in office four years, and no person shall be eligible to the office of Clerk, Recorder, or Auditor more than eight years in any period of twelve years. The Treasurer, Sheriff, Coroner, and Surveyor, shall continue in office two years; and no person shall be eligible to the office of Treasurer or Sheriff more than four years in any period of six years.

Sec. 3. Such other county and township officers as may be necessary shall be elected, or appointed, in such manner as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 4. No person shall be elected, or appointed, as a county officer who shall not be an elector of the county; nor any one who shall not have been an inhabitant thereof, during one year next preceding his appointment, if the county shall have been so long organized; but if the county shall not have been so long organized, then within the limits of the county or counties out of which the same shall have been taken.

Sec. 5. The Governor, and the Secretary, Auditor, and Treasurer of State, shall, severally, reside and keep the public records, books and papers, in any manner relating to the respective offices, at the seat of government.

Sec. 6. All county, township, and town officers, shall reside within their respective counties, townships, and towns; and shall keep their respective offices at such places therein, and perform such duties as may be directed by law.

Sec. 7. All State officers shall, for crime, incapacity, or negligence, be liable to be removed from office, either by impeachment by the House of Representatives, to be tried by the senate, or by a joint resolution of the General Assembly; two-thirds of the members elected to each branch voting, in either case, therefor.

Sec. 8. All State, county, township, and town officers may be impeached or removed from office, in such manner as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 9. Vacancies in county, township, and town offices, shall be filled in such manner as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 10. The General Assembly may confer upon the Boards doing county business in the several counties, powers of a local administrative character.

ARTICLE VII

JUDICIAL

Section 1. The Judicial power of the State shall be vested in a Supreme Court, in Cicruit Courts and in such other courts as the General Assembly may establish. (As amended March 14, 1881.)

Sec. 2. The Supreme Court shall consist of not less than three, nor more than five Judges, a majority of whom shall form a quorum; they shall hold their offices for six years, if they so long behave well.

Sec. 3. The State shall be divided into as many districts as there are Judges of the Supreme Court; and such districts shall be formed of contiugous territory, as nearly equal in population as, without dividing a county, the same can be made. One of said Judges shall

be elected from each district, and reside therein; but said Judges shall be elected by the electors of the State at large.

Sec. 4. The Supreme Court shall have jurisdiction, co-extensive with the limits of the State, in appeals and writs of error, under such regulations and restrictions as may be prescribed by law. It shall also have such original jurisdiction as the General Assembly may confer.

Sec. 5. The Supreme Court shall, upon the decision of every case, give a statement in writing of each question arising in the record of such case, and the decision of the Court thereon.

Sec. 6. The General Assembly shall provide, by law, for the speedy publication of the decisions of the Supreme Court, made under this Constitution; but no Judge shall be allowed to report such decisions.

Sec. 7. There shall be elected by the voters of the State, a Clerk of the Supreme Court, who shall hold his office four years, and whose duties shall be prescribed by law.

Sec. 8. The Circuit Courts shall each consist of one Judge, and shall have such civil and criminal jurisdiction as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 9. The State shall, from time to time, be divided into Judicial Circuits; and a Judge for each Circuit shall be elected by the voters thereof. He shall reside within the Circuit, and shall hold his office for the term of six years, if he so long behave well.

Sec. 10. The General Assembly may provide, by law, that the Judge of one Circuit may hold the Courts of another Circuit, in cases of necessity or convenience; and, in case of temporary inability of any Judge, from sickness or other cause, to hold the Courts in his Circuit, provision may be made, by law, for holding such Courts.

Sec. 11. There shall be elected, in each Judicial Circuit, by the voters thereof, a Prosecuting Attorney, who shall hold his office for two years.

Sec. 12. Any Judge or Prosecuting Attorney, who shall have been convicted of corruption or other high crime, may, on information in the name of the State, be removed from office by the Supreme Court, or in such other manner as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. 13. The Judges of the Supreme Court and Circuit Courts shall, at stated times, receive a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Sec. 14. A competent number of Justices of the Peace shall be elected by the voters in each township in the several counties. They shall continue in office four years, and their powers and duties shall be prescribed by law.

Sec. 15. All judicial officers shall be conservators of the peace in their respective jurisdictions.

Sec. 16. No person elected to any judicial office shall, during the term for which he shall have been elected, be eligible to any office of trust or profit under the State, other than a judicial office.

Sec. 17. The General Assembly may modify or abolish the Grand Jury system.

Sec. 18. All criminal prosecutions shall be carried on in the name, and by the authority, of the State; and the style of all process shall be "The State of Indiana."

Sec. 19. Tribunals of conciliation may be established, with such powers and duties as shall be prescribed by law; or the powers and duties of the same may be conferred upon other Courts of justice; but such tribunals or other Courts, when sitting as such, shall have no power to render judgment to be obligatory on the parties, unless they voluntarily submit their matters of difference, and agree to abide the judgment of such tribunal or court.

Sec. 20. The General Assembly, at its first session after the adoption of this Constitution, shall provide for the appointment of three Commissioners, whose duty it shall be to revise, simplify, and abridge the rules, practice, pleadings, and forms, of the courts of justice. And they shall provide for abolishing the distinct forms of action at law, now in use; and that justice shall be administered in a uniform mode of pleading, without distinction between law and equity. And the General Assembly, may also, make it the duty of said Commissioners to reduce into a systematic code the general statute law of the State; and said Commissioners shall report the result of their labors to the General Assembly, with such recommendations and suggestions, as to abridgment and amendment, as to said Commissioners may seem necessary or proper. Provisions shall be made by law, for filling vacancies, regulating the tenure of office, and the compensation of said Commissioners.

Sec. 21. Every person of good moral character, being a voter, shall be entitled to admission to practice law in all courts of justice.

ARTICLE VIII

EDUCATION

Section 1. Knowledge and learning, generally diffused throughout a community, being essential to the preservation of a free government, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to encourage, by all

suitable means, moral, intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvement; and to provide by law, for a general and uniform system of Common Schools, wherein tuition shall be without charge, and equally open to all.

Sec. 2. The Common School fund shall consist of the Congressional Township fund, and the lands belonging thereto;

The surplus revenue fund;

The saline fund and the lands belonging thereto;

The Bank Tax fund, and the fund arising from the one hundred and fourteenth section of the charter of the State Bank of Indiana;

The fund to be derived from the sale of County seminaries, and the moneys and property heretofore held for such seminaries; from the fines assessed for breaches of the penal laws of the State; and from all forfeitures which may accrue;

All lands and other estate which shall escheat to the State, for want of heirs or kindred entitled to the inheritance;

All lands that have been or may hereafter be, granted to the State, where no special purpose is expressed in the grant, and the proceeds of the sales thereof, including the proceeds of the sales of the Swamp Lands, granted to the State of Indiana by the act of Congress of the 28th of September, 1850, after deducting the expense of selecting and draining the same;

Taxes on the property of corporations, that may be assessed by the General Assembly for Common School purposes.

Sec. 3. The principal of the Common School fund shall remain a perpetual fund, which may be increased, but shall never be diminished; and the income thereof shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of Common Schools, and to no other purpose whatever.

Sec. 4. The General Assembly shall invest in some safe and profitable manner all such portions of the Common School fund, as have not heretofore been intrusted to the several counties; and shall make provision, by law, for the distribution, among the several counties, of the interest thereof.

Sec. 5. If any county shall fail to demand its proportion of such interest for Common School purposes, the same shall be reinvested for the benefit of such county.

Sec. 6. The several counties shall be held liable for the preservation of so much of the said fund as may be intrusted to them, and for the payment of the annual interest thereon.

Sec. 7. All trust funds held by the State shall remain inviolate, and be faithfully and exclusively applied to the purposes for which the trust was created.

Sec. 8. The General Assembly shall provide for the election, by the voters of the State, of a State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who shall hold his office for two years, and whose duties and compensation shall be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IX

STATE INSTITUTIONS

Section 1. It shall be the duty of the General Assembly to provide, by law, for the support of Institutions for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, and of the Blind, and also for the treatment of the Insane.

Sec. 2. The General Assembly shall provide Houses of Refuge for the correction and reformation of juvenile offenders.

Sec. 3. The County Boards shall have power to provide farms as an asylum for those persons who, by reason of age, infirmity, or other misfortune, have claims upon the sympathies and aid of society.

ARTICLE X

FINANCE

Section 1. The General Assembly shall provide, by law, for a uniform and equal rate of assessment and taxation; and shall prescribe such regulations as shall secure a just valuation for taxation of all property, both real and personal, excepting such only for municipal, educational, literary, scientific, religious, or charitable purposes, as may be specially exempted by law.

Sec. 2. All the revenues derived from the sale of any of the public works belonging to the State, and from the net annual income thereof, and any surplus that may, at any time, remain in the Treasury, derived from taxation for general State purposes, after the payment of the ordinary expenses of the government, and of the interest on bonds of the State, other than Bank bonds, shall be annually applied, under the direction of the General Assembly, to the payment of the principal of the Public debt.

Sec. 3. No money shall be drawn from the Treasury but in pursuance of appropriations made by law.

Sec. 4. An accurate statement of the receipts and expenditures of the public money shall be published with the laws of each regular session of the General Assembly.

Sec. 5. No law shall authorize any debt to be contracted, on behalf of the State, except in the following cases: To meet casual deficits in the revenue; to pay the interest on the State debt; to repel invasion, suppress insurrection, or, if hostilities be threatened, provide for the public defense.

Sec. 6. No county shall subscribe for stock in any incorporated company, unless the same be paid for at the time of such subscription; nor shall any county loan its credit to any incorporated company, nor borrow money for the purpose of taking stock in any such company; nor shall the General Assembly ever, on behalf of the State, assume the debts of any county, city, town, or township, nor of any corporation whatever.

Sec. 7. No law or resolution shall ever be passed by the General Assembly of the State of Indiana that shall recognize any liability of this State to pay or redeem any certificate of stock issued in pursuance of an act entitled "An act to provide for the funded debt of the State of Indiana, and for the completion of the Wabash and Erie Canal to Evansville," passed January 19, 1846; and an act supplemental to said act, passed January 29, 1847; which by the provisions of the said acts, or either of them, shall be payable exclusively from the proceeds of the canal lands, and the tolls and revenues of the canal in said aets mentioned; and no such certificates of stock shall ever be paid by this State.

[Note.—Section 7 is an amendment agreed to by a majority of the members elected to each of the two houses of the General Assembly, Regular Session of 1871, and referred to the General Assembly to be chosen at the next general election. Agreed to by a majority of the members elected to each house of the General Assembly, Special Sessions of 1872. Submitted to the electors of the State by an act approved January 28, 1873. Ratified by a majority of the electors, at an election held on the 18th day of February, 1873. Declared a part of the Constitution by proclamation of Thomas A. Hendricks, Governor, March 7, 1873.]

ARTICLE XI

CORPORATIONS

Section 1. The General Assembly shall not have power to establish, or incorporate, any bank or banking company, or moneyed institution, for the purpose of issuing bills of credit, or bills payable to

order or bearer, except under the conditions prescribed in this Constitution.

Sec. 2. No bank shall be established otherwise than under a general banking law, except as provided in the fourth section of this article.

Sec. 3. If the General Assembly shall enact a general banking law, such law shall provide for the registry and countersigning, by an officer of State, of all paper credit designed to be circulated as money; and ample collateral security, readily convertible into specie, for the redemption of the same in gold or silver, shall be required; which collateral security shall be under the control of the proper officer or officers of State.

Sec. 4. The General Assembly may also charter a bank with branches, without collateral security as required in the preceding section.

Sec. 5. If the General Assembly shall establish a bank with branches, the branches shall be mutually responsible for each other's liabilities upon all paper credit issued as money.

Sec. 6. The stockholders in every bank, or banking company, shall be individually responsible, to an amount, over and above their stock, equal to their respective shares of stock, for all debts or liabilities of said bank or banking company.

Sec. 7. All bills or notes issued as money shall be, at all times, redeemable in gold or silver, and no law shall be passed, sanctioning, directly or indirectly, the suspension by any bank or banking company, of specie payments.

Sec. 8. Holders of bank notes shall be entitled, in case of insolvency, to preference of payment over all other creditors.

Sec. 9. No bank shall receive, directly or indirectly, a greater rate of interest than shall be allowed by law, to individuals loaning money.

Sec. 10. Every bank or banking company shall be required to cease all banking operations, within twenty years from the time of its organization, and promptly thereafter to close its business.

Sec. 11. The General Assembly is not prohibited from investing the Trust Funds in a bank with branches, but in case of such investment, the safety of the same shall be guaranteed by unquestionable security.

Sec. 12. The State shall not be a stockholder in any bank, after the expiration of the present bank charter; nor shall the credit of the State ever be given, or loaned, in aid of any person, association, or cor-

poration; nor shall the State hereafter become a stockholder in any corporation or association.

Sec. 13. Corporations, other than banking, shall not be created by special act, but may be formed under general laws.

Sec. 14. Dues from corporations, other than banking, shall be secured by such individual liability of the corporations, or other means, as may be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE XII

MILITIA

Section 1. The militia shall consist of all able-bodied white male persons between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, except such as may be exempted by the laws of the United States, or of this State; and shall be organized, officered, armed, equipped, and trained in such manner as may be provided by law.

Sec. 2. The Governor shall appoint the Adjutant, Quartermaster, and Commissary Generals.

Sec. 3. All militia officers shall be commissioned by the Governor, and shall hold their offices not longer than six years.

Sec. 4. The General Assembly shall determine the method of dividing the militia into divisions, brigades, regiments, battalions and companies, and fix the rank of all staff officers.

Sec. 5. The militia may be divided into classes of sedentary and active militia, in such manner as shall be prescribed by law.

Sec. 6. No person conscientiously opposed to bearing arms, shall be compelled to do militia duty; but such person shall pay an equivalent for exemption, the amount to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE XIII

POLITICAL AND MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS

Section 1. No political or municipal corporation in this State shall ever become indebted, in any manner, or for any purpose, to any amount, in the aggregate exceeding two per centum on the value of taxable property, within such corporation, to be ascertained by the last assessment for State and county taxes, previous to the incurring of such indebtedness; and all bonds or obligations, in excess of such amount, given by such corporations, shall be void; Provided, That in time of war, foreign invasion, or other great public calamity, on petition of a majority of the property owners, in number and value, within

the limits of such corporation, the public authorities, in their discretion, may incur obligations necessary for the public protection and defense, to such an amount as may be requested in such petition. (Amendment adopted March 14, 1881, and inserted in lieu of the original Article 13, which was stricken out.)

ARTICLE XIV

BOUNDARIES

Section 1. In order that the boundaries of the State may be known and established, it is hereby ordained and declared, that the State of Indiana is bounded on the east by the meridian line, which forms the western boundary of the State of Ohio; on the south by the Ohio River, from the mouth of the Great Miami River to the mouth of the Wabash River; on the west by a line drawn along the middle of the Wabash River, from its mouth to a point where a due north line, drawn from the town of Vincennes, would last touch the northwestern shore of said Wabash River; and thence by a due north line, until the same shall intersect an east and west line, drawn through a point ten miles north of the southern extreme of Lake Michigan; on the north by said east and west line, until the same shall intersect the first-mentioned meridian line, which forms the western boundary of the State of Ohio.

Sec. 2. The State of Indiana shall possess jurisdiction and sovereignty co-extensive with the boundaries declared in the preceding section; and shall have concurrent jurisdiction, in civil and criminal cases, with the State of Kentucky on the Ohio River, and with the State of Illinois on the Wabash River, so far as said rivers form the common boundary between this State and said States respectively.

ARTICLE XV

MISCELLANEOUS

Section 1. All officers whose appointments are not otherwise provided for in this Constitution, shall be chosen in such manner as now s, or hereafter may be, prescribed by law.

Sec. 2. When the duration of any office is not provided for by this Constitution, it may be declared by law; and if not so declared, such office shall be held during the pleasure of the authority making the appointment. But the General Assembly shall not create any office, the tenure of which shall be longer than four years.

Sec. 3. Whenever it is provided in this Constitution, or an any law which may be hereafter passed, that any officer other than a member of the General Assembly shall hold his office for any given term, the same shall be construed to mean that such officer shall hold his office for such term, and until his successor shall have been elected and qualified.

Sec. 4. Every person elected or appointed to any office under this Constitution shall, before entering on the duties thereof, take an oath or affirmation to support the Constitution of this State, and of the United States, and also an oath of office.

Sec. 5. There shall be a Seal of State, kept by the Governor for official purposes, which shall be called the Seal of the State of Indiana.

Sec. 6. All commissions shall issue in the name of the State, shall be signed by the Governor, sealed by the State Seal, and attested by the Secretary of State.

Sec. 7. No county shall be reduced to an area less than four hundred square miles; nor shall any county under that area be further reduced.

Sec. 8. No lottery shall be authorized, nor shall the sale of lottery tickets be allowed.

Sec. 9. The following grounds owned by the State in Indianapolis, namely, the State House Square, the Governor's Circle, and so much of outlot numbered one hundred and forty-seven as lies north of the arm of the Central Canal, shall not be sold or leased.

Sec. 10. It shall be the duty of the General Assembly to provide for the permanent inclosure and preservation of the Tippecanoe Battle Ground.

ARTICLE XVI

AMENDMENTS

Section 1. Any amendment or amendments to this Constitution may be proposed in either branch of the General Assembly; and if the same shall be agreed to by a majority of the members elected to each of the two houses, such proposed amendment or amendments shall, with the yeas and nays thereon, be entered on their journals, and referred to the General Assembly to be chosen at the next general election; and, if in the General Assembly so next chosen, such proposed amendment or amendments shall be agreed to by a majority of all members elected to each house, then it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to submit such amendment or amendments to the

electors of the State; and if a majority of said electors shall ratify the same, such amendment or amendments shall become a part of this Constitution.

Sec. 2. If two or more amendments shall be submitted at the same time, they shall be submitted in such manner that the electors shall vote for or against each of such amendments separately; and while an amendment or amendments which shall have been agreed upon by one General Assembly shall be awaiting the action of a succeeding General Assembly, or of the electors, no additional amendment or amendments shall be proposed.

Done in Convention, at Indianapolis, the tenth day of February, n the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-one; and of the independence of the United States, the seventy-fifth.

GEORGE WHITFIELD CARR,

President and Delegate from the County of Lawrence.

Attest:

WM. H. ENGLISH,

Principal Secretary.

The original sections which have been changed by amendment reads as follows:

ARTICLE II

SUFFRAGE AND ELECTION

Section 2. In all elections, not otherwise provided for by this Constitution, every white male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who shall have resided in the State during the six months immediately preceding such election; and every white male of foreign birth of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who shall have resided in the United States one year, and shall have resided in this State during the six months immediately preceding such election, and shall have declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, conformably to the laws of the United States on the subject of naturalization, shall be entitled to vote in the township or precinct where he may reside.

Sec. 5. No negro or mulatto shall have the right of suffrage.

Sec. 14. All general elections shall be held on the second Tuesday in October.

ARTICLE IV

LEGISLATIVE

Section 4. The General Assembly shall, at its second session after the adoption of this Constitution and every six years thereafter, cause an enumeration to be made of all the white male inhabitants over the age of twenty-one years.

Sec. 5. The number of Senators and Representatives shall, at the session next following each period of making such enumeration, be fixed by law and apportioned among the several counties, according to the number of white male inhabitants, above twenty-one years of age, in each: Provided, That the first and second elections of members of the General Assembly, under this Constitution, shall be acording to the apportionment last made by the General Assembly, before the adoption of this Constitution.

Sec. 22. In relation to fees or salaries.

ARTICLE VII

JUDICIAL

Section 1. The judicial power of the State shall be vested in a Supreme Court, in Circuit Courts, and in such inferior courts as the General Assembly may establish.

ARTICLE XIII

NEGROES AND MULATTOES

Section 1. No negro or mulatto shall come into, or settle in, the State, after the adoption of this Constitution.

Sec. 2. All contracts made with any negro or mulatto coming into the State, contrary to the provisions of the foregoing section, shall be void; and any person who shall employ such negro or mulatto, or otherwise encourage him to remain in the State, shall be fined in any sum not less than ten dollars, nor more than five hundred dollars.

Sec. 3. All fines which may be collected for a violation of the provisions of this article, or of any law which may hereafter be passed for the purpose of carrying the same into execution, shall be set apart and appropriated for the colonization of such negroes and mulattoes, and their descendants as may be in the State at the adoption of this Constitution, and may be willing to emigrate.

Sec. 4. The General Assembly hall pass laws to carry out the provisions of this article.

TOPICAL INDEX

Abbott, Lieut. Gov., 43

Bowman, Raid of, 56
British, The, 40–48
  Recapture Vincennes, 49
  Surrender Vincennes, 53
Buffalo, Coming of, 17
Burr, Aaron, 90
Byrd, Raid of, 56

Capital, The, 160
  Congress donates land for, 160
  Indianapolis selected, 162
  Naming of, 163
Clark, George Rogers, 45, 53, 58
  Clark's plans, 46
  Marches on Kaskaskia, 47
  Sets out for Vincennes, 50
  Clark's letter, 52
  Captures Vincennes, 53
  In command, 56
  Honorably discharged, 58
  Campaign of 1785, 60
  Last days of, 62
Convention, Constitutional:
  Congress grants permission, 123
  Delegates to, 123
Constitution, The, 124
Convention of 1850, 188
County Supt., The, 198
Currency, 184

Detroit taken, 105

Early Settlements, 37
  Dates of, 38
Educational Institutions:
  Vincennes, 202
  Indiana, 205
  Purdue, 205
  State Normal, 209
  Hanover College, 209
  Wabash College, 210
Educational Institutions:
  Franklin College, 210
  Notre Dame, 214
  St. Meinrad's, 217
  Oldenburg, 217
  Rose Polytechnic, 218
  Other Colleges, 218
  Valparaiso, 221
  Independent Normals, 222
Eggleston, Edward, 281
Electric lines, 265
Explorers, The, 28

Forts:
  French, 37
  Ouiatanon, 39
  Miamis, 39
  Government of, 39
  Harrison, Attack on, 103
Flat boats, 132
French and Indian War, 41
Frontier History, 55–56

Hamtramck, Major John, 74
Harmar, Expedition of, 75
Harrison, Wm. Henry, 84, 85, 99–105
Harrison, Pres., 265
Hines, Raid of, 240
Hobbs, Barnabas, 154
Hoosier, 277

Indians, 44, 48, 59, 75, 105
  Name and origin, 15
  Of Indiana, 17
  Manner of life, 20
  Weapons of, 20
  Mode of travel, 21
  Dress, 21
  Family and rearing of children, 23
  Traits of, 23
  Marriage customs, 22
  Housekeeping, 22
  Religious beliefs, 24

Indians:
Dances, 24
Games, 25
Burial customs, 26
Number of, 27
Indians and Christianity, 31
Illinois Indians, 35
Hostility to pioneers, 55
Indiana, 83
Immigration to, 83
Territory of, 84
Territorial Government of, 85
Interests of, 85
Division of, 89
Becomes a State, 116
Capital changed to Corydon, 117
During the Civil War, 225

Jefferson's Plan, 67
Jennings, Jonathan, 112
Joliet, Louis, 32

Kaskaskia, 47
March on, 47
Taken by Clark, 47

La Salle, Robt. Cavelier:
First Expedition, 29
Second Expedition, 29
Last Expedition, 35
Legislature:
Of 1813, 116
Meets at Corydon, 119
Lincoln, 230
Log Cabin, The, 136
Logan, Colonel, 60

Marquette, Jacques, 31
Starts out from St. Ignace, 32
On the Wisconsin, 32
On the Mississippi, 33
Among the Illinois Indians, 33
Among the Arkansas Indians, 34
Turns back, 34
The return journey, 35
Death of, 35
Mexican War, 186, 187
Miamis, Fort, 39
Mills, Caleb, 156
Missionaries, 28
Mission Fathers, 30
Mississinewa, Expedition, 105
Morgan, Raid of:
Plans for, 239
Reaches Ohio, 241
At Corydon, 245
At Salem, 246
Begins Retreat, 246
At Vernon, 250
At Dupont and Versailles, 250
Surrender of, 251
Morton, Oliver, 226
Speech of, 229
War policy of, 234
Our debt to, 261
Mound builders, 15
Life of, 17

National Road, The, ~~176~~ 175
Newburg, Raid on, 239
Northwest Territory, 64
Gained by United States, 64
Jefferson's Plan, 67
Government of, 69
Compact with original states, 70
Area of, 73

Ordinance of 1787, 67–69
Greatness of, 69
Provisions of, 69
Ouiatanon, Fort, 39

Painted Rocks, 34
Pigeon Roost, Massacre of, 100
Pioneer life, 129
Perils encountered by settlers, 130
Encounters with Indians, 130
Food supply, 140
Planting and caring for crops, 142
Cutting and threshing grain, 142
Our debt to, 146
Pontiac, War of, 41
Makes peace, 42
Posey, Thomas, Governor, 118
Prophet, The, 99

Quakers, The, 114

Railroads, 169, 265
Randolph, Thomas, 112
Riley, James Whitcomb, 281

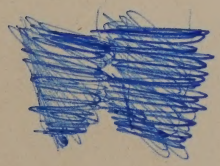
Schools, 148
Early, 148
Of Indiana, 196
Present school system, 201
Scott, Brig. General, 76
Secret Societies, 237
Seminaries, County, 158
Settlers, 55
Slavery in Indiana:
The French and slavery, 106
The English and slavery, 106
Americans and slavery, 106
Attitude of early settlers, 107
Reference to in treaties, 107
Recognition by government, 108
Territorial government and slavery, 109
Anti-Slavery sentiment, [illegible] 209
St. Clair, Arthur:
Becomes Governor, 74
Arrives at Vincennes, 74
Expedition of, 76
Stage Coach, The, 177

Tecumseh, 90
Texas, 185
Thompson, Maurice, 283
Tippecanoe, Battle of, 95
Traders, French, 28
Treaty of Peace with England, 57
Treaty with Indians:
Time set for, 58
Opposition to, 58
Treaty of Greenville, 80

Underground Railway, The, 114

Vigo, Francis, 50
Vincennes:
Established, 38
Taken by Clark, 47
Recaptured by British, 49
Retaken by Clark, 53
Garrison established at, 61
Hamtramck put in command, 74
St. Clair arrives, 74

Wabash Route, The, 37
Wallace, Lew, 282
Wayne, Anthony, 77
Wilkinson, Brig General, 76



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